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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

VALUE CLARIFICATION IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

by

© JOHN L. NEWTON

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
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EDMONTON, ALBERTA
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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled Value Clarification in the Social Studies submitted by John L. Newton in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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ABSTRACT

This exploratory study investigated the interaction in classes of Grade V elementary pupils and three teaching-learning strategies designed to permit them to clarify pertinent value issues.

A cognitive strategy stressed the problem solving inquiry procedure with a minimum of subjective judgment. A cognitive-affective strategy stressed the integration of cognitive and affective processes. An open strategy allowed pupils to pursue their clarification with a minimum of teacher direction.

A new role was envisioned for the pupil in the social studies classroom. He was given the opportunity to pursue his own investigation drawing his own conclusions. He was guided by the teacher to discover as much as possible on his own and in cooperation with his peers.

The investigator sought to identify components of a teaching-learning strategy that would assist learners in the clarification of value issues. Through researching the impact of affective concerns in relationship to cognitive skills in the learning process he formulated a cognitive-affective teaching-learning strategy with an ordered sequence of questions to be followed by the teacher. From the analysis of pupils' daily written assertions, information from individually conducted interviews, pupil positions on a semantic differential at three different points in time, pupil reactions following completion of the study,

recordings of classroom discussions and teacher comments the investigator was able to examine a variety of teaching-learning outcomes.

The exploratory study took place in the last four weeks prior to the Easter vacation in three Edmonton Elementary Schools. Preceding this, the investigator conducted a pilot study in a Grade V classroom for a period of three weeks during which time the teachers who were involved in the study observed the class in action, and the materials, procedures and strategies were refined and clearly determined. Pupils were asked to clarify four value issues during the period of the study using the three prescribed teaching-learning strategies in a predetermined sequence for each class.

The investigator made a number of assumptions about the teaching-learning outcomes that resulted from pupil interaction with the value issues in relation to the particular strategies. Among these assumptions were: pupils would establish relevance between the value issues and experiences in their own lives; pupils would have wide opportunity for expression of ideas of personal concern; pupils would express a variety of written statements from which a scheme for classification could be devised; pupils would express interest and become involved in the activities; there would be a tendency for greater number of higher level cognitive statements and supported valuative statements to occur when the cognitive-affective strategy was followed; there would be support gained for an affective sharing of ideas; that affective change would be associated with the use of cognitive-affective strategy.

Some of the tentative conclusions reached were: (1) students were able to establish relevance between their experiences and the issues in questions, at the same time displaying interest and involvement (2) students were able to explore and share ideas with their peers (3) with a wide variety of written statements analyzed by the use of a categorization system, there was an overall tendency for the cognitive-affective strategy to be associated with statements of a higher cognitive level and supported value judgments (4) written statements of identification were more clearly associated with the cognitive-affective strategy (5) a cognitive base in the form of pertinent facts and figures appeared important (6) the provision for considering a variety of viewpoints seemed essential (7) the affective sharing of ideas seemed a vital component indicating the importance of classroom climate (8) the apparent stability of student positions was apparent from the semantic differential, but with issues that appeared closely related to the experiential concerns of pupils the cognitive-affective strategy appeared to be associated with attitude modification (9) enjoyment gained by listening to the expression of ideas by peers appeared an essential component (10) the expression of personal feelings seemed to be favoured in the clarifying of the value issues (11) the teachers found consideration of affective concerns necessary for value clarification, together with the development of cognitive skills.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM, ITS NATURE AND SIGNIFICANCE

I. Introduction to the Study

Education and schools are coming under a great deal of criticism. Rogers (1969, p. vi) questions if the traditional, conservative, rigid, bureaucratic educational systems can come to grips with the real problems of modern life. Goodlad (1966, p. 238) condemns the position of schooling as a set body of learnings to be mastered and views education as a means of enriching living for young people during a specified period in their lives. Rubin (1969, p. 5) charges schools as being monolithic structures depersonalized, and preoccupied with tradition, more concerned with the herding rather than the nurturing of the young. Jones (1968, p. 4) condemns the educational psychology which is founded on an exclusively cognitive base. Thomas (1967) questions strongly denying the learner an important role in the curriculum-making process.

These and other critics raise a number of questions and pose many challenges. Is education preparing individuals and groups to live comfortably in a world in which ever-accelerating change is the dominant theme? Can education prepare us to live responsibly, communicatively in a world of increasing tensions? Should learning be concerned with some of the more immediate problems that confront us? Can the role of the teacher still be to pass information on to the young? Is education primarily a rational cognitive process?

These questions suggest that we need to examine alternative methods of teaching and learning, which encourage young students to learn from their peers, which weigh the importance of creative as well as rational thought in learning, which deal with the clarification of some of the real problems that face us today, and which place the role of the teacher as a guide rather than as giver of information and answers. These questions also suggest that we should examine the impact of the affective as well as the cognitive in the learning process, and that we may need to revise our criteria for measuring learning outcomes in the light of a more organic approach.

Such labels as inquiry, problem solving, independent discovery and valuing are used to describe a variety of approaches to instruction in the social studies. However, no matter what label is used, there exists one common characteristic for all of them and that is the active involvement of the learner. Students are provided with the necessary background information and resource materials to help them discover for themselves the nature of concepts, relationships, and human conditions through individual and cooperative decision making.

With the foregoing questions and challenges in mind the investigator designed the study which is reported in this dissertation. Three teaching-learning strategies were planned by which students would endeavour to clarify particular value issues which were of concern to them. The cognitive strategy stressed the problem solving inquiry procedure with a minimum of subjective judgement. The cognitive-affective strategy stressed the integration of cognitive and affective processes. The open strategy allowed the pupils to pursue the study with the minimum of teacher direction. A new role for the elementary school pupil in the social studies classroom was envisioned. He was given the opportunity to pursue his own investigation drawing his own conclusions. He was guided by the teacher to discover as much as possible on his own and in cooperation with his peers.

In the study an attempt was made to explore the outcomes of the three strategies with groups of grade five students. Components of these strategies were identified and procedures suggested.

II. Nature of the Problem

Taba (1969) in the social studies curriculum for elementary schools develops teaching strategies for cognitive skills, and in the area of attitudes, feelings and values. She states her views as follows:

> Recent studies have suggested that thinking is learned and is learned developmentally; it is a continuous development of an increasingly complex mental organization (including data processing skills) with which to view the world and to solve problems. Cognitive skills are seen as products of a dynamic interaction between the individual and the stimulation he receives rather than a result of passive absorption of information (xxxiii).
>
> One of the major emphases of this curriculum is in the area of feelings, attitudes, and values.

> It is recognized that these terms have a variety of meanings and implications and, further, that comparatively little is known about the outcomes of in-school procedures in this area. Nevertheless, a considerable body of theory and some research suggests that it should be possible to devise teaching strategies to facilitate attainment of objectives in this domain.
>
> It will be noted that there is considerable overlap among these strategies - which is as it should be. One would hope that cognitive skills would be applied to affective concerns and that emotions would enter into cognitive performance (xxix).

Considerable research supports the close relationship between emotion and cognition. (Duffy, 1948; Leeper, 1948; Webb, 1948; Schacter and Singer, 1962; Izard, 1964 and Murray, 1964). Similarly there are many research studies that view affect as the primary or essential component in a motive series. (Young, 1959; Arnold, 1960; Murphy, 1964; Tomkins, 1964). Other research supports the interdependence of affective and cognitive properties but confirms that cognitive structures form the basis for affective arousal. (Rosenburg, 1964; Harvey, 1964).

While there appears to be considerable evidence to establish the relationship between cognition and affect there seems to be little carry-over of this relationship to specific teaching strategies. Furthermore, there seems to be little research which attempts to develop specific teaching strategies in the social studies which embody this relationship. While cognitive and affective domains have been explored and specific strategies developed (Taba, 1967, 1969) in each of these two domains, an integrated strategy seems lacking at this time.

Metcalf (1963) in a review of social studies programs notes the tendency to appropriate all the objectives of general education. Gross and Badger (1960) report the inclusion of a large number of affective objectives. Gray (1968) indicates a definite increase in the affective dimensions of human behaviour in the interwar period, but that value problems are treated as mere adjuncts to problems of fact. However, Pratt (1969) speaks of a move away from affective objectives in the 1960's, attributing it to the lack of proven ability to alter attitudes, and the dangers of indoctrination. (Fenton, 1966; Massialas, 1966)

In order to clarify the relationship between cognitive skills and affective concerns the real focus may have been overlooked, that is, the students. What skills do students need, to be involved in a problem that includes both domains? Although Taba outlines strategies in both domains and advocates overlapping there still appears a need to interelate both domains more closely. Piaget (1961) refers to this as a synthesis, and states that stages of affectivity correspond exactly to stages of the development of cognitive structures. The development of a teaching strategy that incorporates this synthesis seems possible. Furthermore, it is supported by considerable research. (James, 1890; Lecky, 1945; Schacter and Singer, 1962; Bruner, 1962; Harvey, 1964; Raup, 1950; and many other authorities.)

Clegg and Hills (1968) suggest a strategy which incorporates three of Raths' (1966) basic value processes with some of Taba's cognitive tasks. Their strategy is designed for students to examine historical and current controversial issues.

The investigator attempted to extend the work of Raths (1966), Taba (1969) and Clegg and Hills (1968) by attempting to determine the outcomes resulting from students clarifying value issues with three different strategies. The Province of Alberta Elementary Social Studies Handbook, Experiences in Decision Making (Jan. 1971) stresses values and valuing as curricular content, attending to cognitive and affective objectives. It was considered that the results and implications of this study would be of significance in assisting in the implementation of this curriculum.

III. Problems and Purposes of the Study

The major purpose of this study was to identify components of a teaching learning strategy that would assist learners in the clarification of value issues.

The secondary purposes implicit in this major purpose were:

1. To utilize teaching-learning strategies where classes of elementary pupils at the fifth grade level are encouraged to express in a group and individual way responses to their interpretation of certain value issue situations.
2. To identify components or elements from these strategies and their utilization that appear to have relevance for students to become more involved.
3. To analyze the interaction between the students and the teaching strategies, value issues and materials utilized

and develop a process for clarification of students' written reactions.

4. To determine the nature of the students' positions with respect to each of the value issues.
5. To generate questions which can form the basis for further investigations of utilizing cognitive, cognitive-affective and open strategies with elementary school children.

The problems to be investigated were as follows:

1. Would the groups of students using the full strategy (cognitive-affective) show indications of greater identification, a higher number of affective or valuative statements and a higher number of supported valuative statements than students using the cognitive and the open strategies?
2. Would students using the three value clarification procedures display interest in the program that was greater than following their traditional social studies program?
3. Would students when discussing and clarifying the value issues be able to utilize group processes to make effective verbal responses?

IV. Design of the Study - A Brief Overview

With respect to the nature of the problem and the problems and purposes some value issue topics were selected on the basis of suitability, and probable unfamiliarity to the subjects. These topics were presented to three groups of subjects using alternatively three different strategies.

1. Cognitive: For this strategy the teacher asked questions of a factual nature seeking a cognitive reaction from students. One of the teacher's main tasks consisted of focussing the students to cognitive type questions and responses.
2. Cognitive-Affective: For this strategy the students were asked to respond to the same questions as for the cognitive strategy but in addition were encouraged to respond to affective type questions.
3. Open: In this approach the students were free to discuss the topic and value issue without any direct instructional questioning by the teacher. One of the teacher's main tasks consisted in providing the environmental situations whereby students would feel free to react with their peers on aspects of the value issue that appeared pertinent.

The investigator arranged to use three grade five classrooms in two elementary schools in the same socio-economic district in south-west Edmonton. A grade five sample in another school close by acted as a control group, and participated only in completing weekly pre and post test forms of a semantic differential. The classes each contained thirty (30) pupils with an even distribution of boys and girls in each class.

While the teaching learning strategies differed in their specific components and approaches certain features were basic to all three.

1. The teacher acted as a guide and motivator.
2. The teacher did not impose his viewpoint or approach on the students. He remained impartial to the viewpoints expressed on written sheets and to the viewpoints and courses of action expressed by the students.
3. The environment in the classroom was one in which discussion could take place freely without any fear of reprisal by either teacher or students being expressed over viewpoints that were either expressed or written.
4. Students were permitted to express their understandings in terms of their own environment and life style.
5. The teacher encouraged students to respond creatively to different views and ideas expressed.
6. The teacher encouraged students to interact with each other on views and ideas expressed.
7. The students were encouraged to express their feelings when using the full strategy but not in other strategies.
8. The teacher encouraged the students in their ideas, reasons, viewpoints, etc. in written form upon completion of each class period.

The study design is discussed in detail in Chapter III, along with a detailed description of its operation in the elementary classroom setting.

The findings of this study are presented in six sections. The first consists of an analysis of the students' written assertions. The second contains a descriptive summary of the students' verbal responses concerning procedures and aspects of the program. The third displays the findings from the positions of students on each value topic as measured by the semantic differential technique. The fourth summarizes findings from the written comments of students following completion of the study. Information gained by observations and recording class sessions is also summarized along with some of the teacher reactions to the program. Finally components of a value clarification strategy are suggested based on the findings that are reported.

V. Research Questions

The problems and purposes stated and the questions raised gave rise to the stating of the following research questions:

1. What will be the nature of children's written assertions with respect to a particular value issue when teachers are using:
    - (a) a cognitive strategy?
    - (b) a cognitive-affective strategy?
    - (c) no planned strategy?
2. What components of a teaching-learning strategy can be identified from:
    - (a) children's daily written assertions?

(b) children's verbal responses?

(c) children's written reactions following completion of the study?

3. What will be the nature of the children's position with respect to particular value issues as measured by a semantic differential

(a) prior to the beginning of discussion of each value issue?

(b) upon completion of discussion of the issue?

(c) one month following completion of the discussion?

VI. Definitions of Terms

For the purposes of this study terms were defined as follows:

Value: the word "value" for Raths et al (1966) implies "those beliefs, purposes, attitudes. . . that are chosen freely, thoughtfully, and acted upon." (p. 38) In this study values are those beliefs, purposes, attitudes that are chosen thoughtfully with respect to the particular strategy and issue the students are attempting to clarify.

Valuing: this term refers to the process whereby the individual reaches a personal decision.

Value Topic: this term is the title from which the Value Issue is developed.

Value Issue: this term is the question that arises from the value topic which the students are confronted with.

Value Clarification: this term is concerned with the process and responses resulting from the students' discussion of the value issue to the time the final decisions are reached.

Cognitive Strategy: this term includes the questions of knowledge, comprehension and application that are specified.

Cognitive-Affective Strategy: this term includes the questions of the cognitive strategy but in correspondence questions designed to elicit responses, indicating preferences and identification.

Teaching-Learning Strategy: this term denotes a specific sequence of teaching and learning behaviours and responses.

Identification: this term denotes the ability "to place oneself in the other persons' shoes", by displaying a sense of concern and empathy for other people, animals, the environment and the future condition of mankind.

Intellectual Ability: this is based on the students' scores on the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test.

Open Area School: this term refers to the elementary school which contains an area designed to accommodate several groups of students representing various grade levels. Besides providing space for pupils to meet as a class the area includes an instructional materials centre including a library with additional spaces for individual study and film reviewing.

VII. Delimiting the Study

This study was delimited in the following ways:

1. This study is delimited to the use of three strategies in three selected classrooms of Grade five students. Generalizations can be made only to this group, or to highly similar groups of students.
2. This study is an exploratory investigation. The findings are not strictly definitive, but are intended as the basis for further investigation.
3. This study is delimited to the clarification of certain value issues over a limited period of time. Many other issues could have been included, and the time period spent on each could have been considerably longer.
4. The study is delimited to an examination of students' written assertions in the main. While some investigation was made into the verbal and non-verbal responses of students and teachers, the verbal interaction that took place in each classroom was not analyzed. Rather, samples of classroom interaction were tape recorded, but only as a check to establish if the strategy level questions were being specifically followed.
5. This study does not suggest specific implications for the total social studies curriculum. Implications that are suggested relate to the one-third of social studies time that is designated in the Province of Alberta Elementary Social Studies Handbook, Experiences in Decision Making (Jan. 1971) to be spent in the clarification of pertinent value issues.

VIII. Limitations of Study

1. The samples for this study were selected from a population of grade five pupils in two urban schools in close proximity to each other. It may be that older or younger pupils in different schools would react differently to the procedures outlined for the three strategies.
2. Since the number of value issues was limited other issues may have been more suitable for the study. There might also exist a more effective way of preparing and presenting these value topics and issues than were used in this study.
3. Attendance during the length of the study was exceptionally good. However, in each class one student had to be dropped due to sporadic attendance. As a result the number of students in the three classrooms was reduced to eighty-nine. (89) There were thirty (30) students in the control classroom. Students were occasionally absent for one or two days at a time and as a result they recorded fewer written assertions. Undoubtedly these students lost something in the continuity of the discussion.
4. In one classroom it appeared that the students were more strongly motivated to express their thoughts in written form. They may have influenced the classification of written assertions into respective categories.
5. The time period allowed for the study and the apparent novelty of the value clarification procedures and materials may have

influenced some of the verbal and non-verbal responses made by the students.

6. Although the teachers favoured the use of the cognitive-affective strategy with their pupils they indicated that it was perhaps the most difficult strategy to fully implement within the framework that had been established. However, one outstanding feature of this strategy is its inclusiveness or completeness in the way of involving both cognition and affect. The importance of establishing a favourable classroom climate with strong teacher-pupil rapport was considerably important though difficult to achieve.
7. An across class comparison could not be made, since the three strategies and their order of use were assigned to groups on the basis of predetermined criterion.

IX. Significance of the Study

Changes that are suggested for elementary education, and specifically for the social studies put the pupil in a setting that requires a different role. Learning is increasingly becoming a more active process and to a greater extent more self directed and peer directed.

The results of several studies, reported by researchers and educators show many advantages that are attributed to new "procedures" in the social studies curriculum.

Justification for this research lies in the fact that little is known about the effectiveness of various strategies in the social studies curriculum with different groups of learners. Also little is known of how pupils can identify their feelings in their clarification of a value topic and issue in interaction with their peers.

While three teaching strategies were employed in this study the investigator was particularly interested in the findings resulting from the use of the cognitive affective strategy. This strategy employed the use of affective questions paralleling cognitive questions at each strategy level. This teaching learning strategy was based on a theoretical background contained in Chapter II of this study.

It was tried out in classroom situations along with two other clarification strategies. Written and spoken comments were recorded for further examination and analysis. The investigator made suggestions for further study in the light of a variety of analyses used in the study.

The report of the use of these strategies with their particular value topics and value issues, their evaluation, and the components of a teaching-learning strategy that appear to be of importance constitute the significance of the study.

X. Outline of the Report of the Study

In Chapter II a rationale of the study is presented. It discusses theory and findings from the fields of sociology and psychology and empirical investigations. It reviews conditions for valuing in the social studies classroom setting and establishes conditions favourable to student participation and involvement in clarifying value issues.

In Chapter III the study design and procedures are outlined. It sets out how the teaching-learning strategy including cognitive and affective components was developed. It gives an account of the value issues and materials, and how the strategies were implemented in the classroom setting. The samples, measures and testing procedures are described.

Chapter IV reports the observations and findings relating to the students clarification of specific value topics and value issues in the classroom setting. It examines the nature of their written assertions, verbal reactions and other written statements. It also examines the nature of their positions with respect to each value topic at different time periods as indicated by a semantic differential. This chapter concludes with some indications as to the suitability of specific components comprising a value clarification strategy.

Chapter V reports conclusions, and makes suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

Within a theoretical framework the new knowledge that has contributed to recent changes and led to new approaches in the teaching of elementary school social studies appears to come from the following fields of inquiry.

1. Sociological Theory.
2. Psychological Theory.
3. Value Theory and Empirical Inquiry.

I. Sociological Theory

The phenomenon of accelerated change in society is gaining more general acceptance. It is hypothesized here that we are making a grave mistake if we do not recognize the changing nature of the change process itself, and that we are also making a mistake if we do not confront ourselves and young people in society with the forces of change that focus on problems that influence us. Simply recognizing the inevitability of change does not give us control over it. As the nature of change is changing, individuals influenced by it need to understand and clarify for themselves the nature of the process.

Many writers depict man as being alienated from society as a result of increasing technological change. (Wiener, 1954; Michael, 1962; Mumford, 1963, 1967; Kahn and Wiener, 1967; Mesthene, 1968, 1970; Toffler, 1970). Mesthene (1970) views the accelerating rate of technological change outstripping traditional categories of thought, rendering obsolete many established institutions and values of society.

Wartofsky (1968) defines the dilemma of man as a rift between two cultures, the scientific and the humanistic. He fears that we are ". . .trapped between what we know science to be. . . and what we simultaneously fear that science has become. . . an amoral and inhumane instrument which has developed beyond human control". (p. 2) Snow (1965) describes the widening split between the two cultures and notes "how little of twentieth century science has been assimilated into twentieth century art". (p. 16)

Earlier Ogburn (1931, pp. 199-202) asserts that widespread social disorganization and tensions are the result of accumulation of culture lags, the non-material culture lagging behind the material culture. Mannheim (1940, p. 43) refers to technological advance outpacing moral percepts. Over the years many writers endeavour to explain this condition. (Merton, 1957; Meier and Bell, 1959; Taviss, 1969) Durkheim (1949) uses the concept of anomie to explain the individual's alienation from society when accepted rules and moral standards cease to influence his behaviour and conduct.

Indications for courses of action to cope with the societal problems have been suggested by several authorities. Mannheim (1940) stresses the need to:

> ". . . re-establish on a larger scale the methods of value judgment, value assimilation, value

> reconciliation and value standards which were always active in small communities, and which, owing to the limited size of these communities, could do their work spontaneously." (p. 114)

In the traditional Gemeinschaft society where division of labour was minimal, there was more opportunity for meaningful collective action. In technological society the problem is more complex. However, many authorities state the necessity to understand and to be involved in the technological change processes. (Mesthene, 1950; Wiener, 1950; Mumford, 1963, 1967; McLuhan, 1964; Harrington, 1965; Boulding, 1967; Rescher, 1967; Toffler, 1970)

MacDonald (1968) traces the differences between a folk culture and a mass culture. In the mass culture people are unable to express themselves as human beings, "because they are not related to one another, but only to something distant, abstract, non human". (p. 25) In a folk culture on the other hand, "the scale is small enough so that it makes a difference what the individual does, a first condition for human. . . as against mass existence" (p. 24).

Catton (1959) introduces the concept of "value space" within which the process valuing takes place. The individual is viewed as the centre of several socially induced fields of force which influenced his preferences. Value space is a socio-cultural product which largely determines behaviour and the nature of societal relationships. Hormann (1970) makes the distinction between the spontaneity or life force of the individual, and the life space within which the vital process took place.

(A) Implications for the School and the Social Studies Curriculum

Lewin and Grabbe (1945) state that re-education is needed when an individual or group is out of touch with reality. With a change in culture this involved total life changes including values, beliefs, emotions and knowledge. Geiger (1950) concludes that the lack of this inquiry is social and institutional and not theoretical. Schultz (1968) deplores the lack of dealing with current issues of concern, regarding schools as retreating from reality.

Raup (1950) condemns prevailing methods of deliberation as being univalued in their attack upon problems and advocates a multivalued approach including more participation: (p. 50)

> "It is society that creates values. Society is not alone an exchange of services or a collaboration of forces; it is above all, a communion of feelings. And it is essentially the transmission of values that societies perpetuate themselves." (p. 178)

Stanley (1950) makes a case for teachers dealing with current issues in the classroom in the search for clarification and order. The problem of method remains to be settled.

> "No method of inquiry and deliberation has so far conclusively demonstrated its capacity to settle efficiently and decisively, the kinds of conflicts involved in the current social crisis." (p. 186)

Wiener (1954) criticizes parent and teacher protectionism of the young where they are guarded against tragedy, awareness of death and problematic situations. Instead of facing issues in life they build up "a heaven on earth consisting of bigger and better things". (p. 41)

Smith, Stanley and Shores (1957, p. 31) speak of the mass culture phenomenon as the breakdown of primary group relationships and the social isolation of man as an individual. Meade (1969) indicates that the schools must build a reciprocal relationship between the individual and the mass.

Louis Raths (1961) notes the failure of social institutions to free the capacities of the young for change. He points to the development and clarification of values and thinking processes to assist in overcoming this failure.

> "In this century children have been exposed to ways of life that were alien to small communities at the turn of the century. It seems to me that it is now much more difficult for children to internalize the mores of their community. (p. 287)
>
> The place of work in the development of personality has lost much of its significance. (p. 288)
>
> The function of the social institution is to help create personality. . . helping students to arrive at a sense of discrimination, a basis for making choices that are relevant to the worth of their lives." (p. 292)

Hatcher (1966) refers to the difficulties of students making rational and human choices, especially when not confronted with real issue situations. "Value reappraisal becomes increasingly difficult, and the human condition worsens as the tempo of change accelerates." (p. 245)

One of the most critical problems that looms large in periods of rapid change concerns the relevancy of the curriculum. Cay (1966) emphasizes that the curriculum ". . . is the people and their value systems, their beliefs, their philosophies, and their practices regarding education. . . it is the reflection of political, religious, social and ethical values in its school system". (p. 23) Smith, Stanley and Shores (1957, p. 21) emphasize that in a period of social change the school must design a curriculum which will develop a strong liason between reality and the educational endeavour. One could question whether or not the schools have, through their curriculum change, adjusted and made the necessary modifications to allow students to be confronted with the reality implicit in pertinent value issue situations.

Taba (1962) indicates that the first step in curriculum development is the diagnosis of need. If the changing mass culture appears to be lacking some of the basic personal and interpersonal ingredients that assist in the change process, the curriculum logically has the task of assisting young people to make the necessary adaptations. In this way the students may be in a better position to both see and control the evils of the mass culture and at the same time maintain and strengthen some of the good ingredients in the more intimate folk culture. The two areas of concern in mass man appear to be in diminishing individuality, and a failure of the social institutions to involve the individual in the processes, decisions and results of change.

The criticisms have been that our schools are depersonalized production factories where teachers follow instructions and students have little say in the determination of their educational program and the processes that are used. Meade (1969) strongly suggests that the curriculum prepare students for their roles as individuals and that the maintenance of individual integrity be preserved and enriched. Hutchins (in Rubin, 1969, p. 26) indicates the futility of trying to prepare the child for a precise set of conditions, the development of traditional skills and abilities once viewed as the major aim of curriculum no longer feasible as the sole criteria if the problem of relevancy is going to be faced.

Rogers (1969) states that "the only learning which significantly influences behaviour is self-discovered, self-appropriated learning" and this "cannot be directly communicated to another". (p. 153) Jones (1968) stresses the importance of relevance, and the need to effectively involve the emotions to the subject matter and its presentation. Three ways he suggests: "(1) coordination of developmental issues with curriculum issues; (2) coordination of cognitive skills with emotional and imagined skills; (3) coordination of classroom management with instruction". (p. 191-2) However, dealing with emotionally charged issues appearing unpredictably as they often do may be viewed as disruptive forces and beyond the scope of the world of the classroom.

Jones (1968) continues:

> Let us enter it as a fundamental rule, then, that the cultivation of emotional issues in the classroom, whether by design or in response to the unpredictable should be means to the ends of instructing the children in the subject matter. This not only for the reason that resolution of emotional issues, when integral to learning, tends to deepen the learning; but also for the reason that in the setting of a schoolroom emotional issues cannot be optimally resolved until they become relevant to educational objectives. (p. 160)

Therefore, it would appear that if there is a need to revise the social studies curriculum there is most certainly the need to formulate both broad and specific objectives by which changes may be guided. Phenix (1964, p. 4) stresses the importance of a unitary philosophy of curriculum which results in the individual having a comprehensive outlook consisting of an organized totality. If the new objectives are related to changing needs it may well be that the involvement and learning inherent in the valuing process may require closer examination in order that concerns be reduced.

There appears the need to clarify the role of curriculum, integrate the parts of the curriculum, guide the selection of content and set the criteria for evaluation. The decision making of teachers and students appear inherent in the curriculum building process. (Smith et al, 1957; Cay, 1960; Taba, 1962; Johnson, 1967; Doll, 1970). These authors stress the need to balance the mastery of content with suitability of process if objectives are to be implemented. Taba (1962, p. 206) particularly notes the importance of being able to categorize our objectives, striking a healthy balance among the types.

Maguire (1969, p. 18) differentiates among levels of objectives in a model for curriculum evaluation indicating a rational-sequential approach: interpretation of needs of society by various social agents, formulation into broad educational objectives by curriculum developers, the translation of the behavioural statements into classroom strategies, and revision resulting from the students' interaction with the strategies.

This study proposes that the social agents have established a need for change in the content and methods of teaching social studies at the elementary school level, that new objectives include the full participating of individual students into matters of mutual interest and concern, and that now we must move to Maguire's third stage of translating these into effective classroom strategies. The investigator (Newton, 1972) proposes that the student must become involved both cognitively and affectively to deal effectively with value issues. He proposes further that the need to develop these classroom strategies is essential if the schools are to maintain their relevance to the students and to changing societal needs; and if we are to educate our future citizens to become responsive to all societies' peoples.

It could be concluded from this review that a vital concern involves man's relationship to "value space" or "life space". If we accept the challenge to deal with this relationship in the social studies we accept also the challenge to deal with current value issues and environmental problems. Several authorities have stressed the need for this approach. (Scriven, 1966; Metcalf, 1963; Raths, 1966; Rogers, 1964; Jones, 1967; Clayton, 1969; Fraenkel, 1969; Bruner, 1970)

The examination of value issues appears to be justified. By interpretation of real situations the child may be able to realize the many complexities of life and the part he can play. Furthermore, through the process of this examination he is participating in various thinking, valuing and decision making activities which would better prepare him to deal with these complexities. A sense of community which Stanley (1950, p. 25) defines as "a sense of common patterns of feeling, acting and thinking, a sense of unity growing out of a common world of experience", could assist in the more meaningful involvement of individuals in the development of a changing society.

II. Psychological Theory

As stated in the introduction, the interrelationship of cognitive skills and affective concerns has for some time been considered important from the viewpoint of classroom instruction and applications made by learners. The overall intent of the review section is to clarify the importance of this interrelationship for the purpose of establishing ideas to be incorporated into a teaching-learning strategy to deal with value issues.

(a) Emotion and Cognition

Delgado (1966) accepts the Oxford University Dictionary (1955) definition of emotion as "a mental feeling or affection (e.g. pain, desire, hope, etc.) as distinct from cognition or volition". The concept of emotion as an irrational entity and threat to human wisdom is seeing emotion divorced from its experiential aspect.

Leeper (1948) reviews psychological interpretations of emotion, and condemns several psychologists who see emotions as disorganizing. (Woodworth, 1940; Munn, 1946; Young, 1936; Landis, 1939). Duffy and Webb (1948) support the Leeper viewpoint.

It seems that emotions have not really been understood or their function interpreted. Teachers appear reluctant to foster emotional expression in the classroom in case of the unpredictable response. Emotional involvement may be regarded as out of scope. For example, it might appear to distract from the pursuit of knowledge.

Leeper, Duffy and Webb concur in their emphasis on the organizing role of emotion. Webb states that emotional properties operate as motives, arousing and directing activity. Webb views the integration of emotions as directing behaviour.

Other authorities recognize the importance of emotion in organizing and clarifying knowledge and understanding. Whitehead (1929) states:

> "You cannot put life into any schedule of general education unless you succeed in exhibiting its relationships to some essential characteristic of all intelligent or emotional perception." (p. 12)

Weisskopf (1951) refers to teachers who teach pupils to make their impulses subservient to intellectual activity as de-emotionalizing intellectuality. Brameld (1964, p. 171) cites emotional involvement as one of the critical factors in the relationship between children and teacher. Muller (1964, p. 76) states that rational thought should redirect and enhance the emotional content of life.

Other authorities stress the interdependency of cognition and emotion. Arnold (1960) stresses perceptual and cognitive processes in the dynamics of emotion. He proposes a sequence for interpreting a situation:

i. neutral reception of external stimuli (perception)

ii. a judgment of the stimuli (appraisal)

iii. a felt tendency toward the stimuli (emotion)

iv. a pattern of physiological changes which accompanies the felt tendency (expression)

v. approach or withdrawal (action).

Schacter and Singer (1962) emphasize the cognition base to emotional reaction. The individual who is able to state and describe his feelings based on cognitive aspects of the situation becomes less fearful or angry in the situation. Schacter and Singer conclude that in a state of physiological arousal with no explanation the individual labels the state in terms of cognition known to him. When there is explanation he labels his feelings according to new and old cognitions. Bull (1951), Izard (1964) and Murray (1964) explore the causes and effects of emotional reaction, stressing the importance of cognitive elements of initial perception and appraisal.

One might conclude from this review that emotions play a strong role in the development of meaningful learning experiences. Kubie (1959) deplores the lack of emotional commitment in teaching activities that allow the child to develop his individual potentialities. The absence of emotion in the interpretation of a value situation could lead to an interpretation without real meaning for the student.

(b) Affect and Cognition

The interdependence of affect and cognition may be viewed as similar to that of emotion and cognition. However, over the years thinking as a method of intelligent learning, whilst recognizing the existence of affective concerns has not stated them in specific teaching strategies.

Dewey (1938, p. 77) advocates self activity and participation of the learner in purposes which direct his activities in the learning process. The method aims at the student finding new knowledge from experiencing (1944). Metcalf (1962) in reviewing theories of reflective thinking as a method for teaching concepts and generalizations notes that while value judgments are considered important by several writers their models tend to emphasize the development of cognitive skills, with the virtual exclusion of affective concern. (Hullfish and Smith, 1951; Henderson, 1961; Ennis, 1962)

Several authorities support affective concerns as motivation to promote learning. In a study by Brown, Morrison and Couch (1947) ratings on responsibility show a higher correlation with affectional family relationships. Many studies show that altruistic factors contribute to well-knit social organizations where thoughts and feelings of people are closely interrelated. (Reed, 1958, 1961; Harris et al, 1955; Wright, 1942; Alexander, 1950; Durkin, 1959, 1961; Rogers and Long, 1961) Such studies appear to indicate the importance of integrating affective concerns with cognitive skill development.

Young (1959) states that affective processes have an objective existence and intervene between stimulus and response conditions. They act as motivators to promote learning, but do not cause it. Murphy (1964) views affect as the essential component in a motive series, being conceived in broadly defined organic terms.

Huxley (1962) compares the aesthetic spiritual mode of perceiving and the conceptualized scientific mode, and concludes that both should be included in any thinking approach, with emphasis on the former being by means of using the suggestive powers of the youngsters' imagination. Kubie (1959, 1967) and Hamlin (1967) advocate a similar approach, educable experiences enabling each child to face the conflicts and social concerns from which he shrinks. Tomkins and Izard (1964) see affect as the primary motivational system, a major personality sub-system, playing a prominent role in behaviour.

Affective components in social studies teaching strategies are advocated by Jaros and Canon (1969), Fraenkel (1969), Glatt (1970) and Kaltsounis (1970, 1971) with affect designed to strengthen cognitive power resulting in more effective decision making. However, what seems to be needed is the integration of cognitive skills and affective concerns.

This integration is not a new development however. William James (1890) writes of "the current opposition of feeling to knowledge as being a false issue" (pp. 478-479). Eighty years later Bruner (1970) advocates social and personal relevance by bringing knowledge and affective conviction together. It appears that both writers recognize the importance of the interrelationship of cognition and affect. This Bruner stresses:

> Since childhood, I have been enchanted by the fact and symbolism of the right hand and the left. . . the one the doer, the other the dreamer. (p. 2)
>
> As a right handed psychologist I have been diligent for fifteen years in the study of the cognitive processes. . . Seeking the most beautifully simple case I chose to study the learning and the teaching of mathematics. But it was soon clear that the heart of mathematical learning was tipped to the left. (p. 3)

The dynamic principle of the human organism as "striving for unity" is important for Lecky (1945).

> ". . . the maintenance of unity is the primary goal of every living system. . . What must be kept unified and internally consistent is the mind, the organization of feelings, ideas and attitudes which have been evolved from the interaction of the organism meeting its environment." (p. 122)

Raup (1950) states:

> One does not make up one's "feeling mind" and then express it through symbols. There is a functional independence of feelings and symbols that is too integral to both to permit their separation even for purposes of emphasis. If there is an imperative in a formulation, both feelings and symbols share it; if there is tentativeness both must share this too." (p. 173)

Rosenburg (1956) notes the interdependence of affective and cognitive properties. The nature of affect toward an object is associated with the content of its related cognitive structure. Rosenburg sees the importance of achieving affective-cognitive consistency to acquire social values.

Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955) note that changes in attitude are always in the direction of increased congruity within the existing frame of reference. Rosenberg (1964) states that inconsistent cognitions about the attitude object are more likely to arouse psychological tension. Being less stable they are more prone to reorganization than attitudes and values, but as such influence attitudinal inconsistencies. Attitude change to Rosenberg is achieved by getting the person to accept or entertain new inconsistent cognitions about the attitude object.

Harvey (1964) also notes the importance of cognitive aspects of affective arousal, one's cognitive make up forming the baseline. Both Harvey and Rosenberg attribute attitude change to cognitive inconsistencies.

Festinger (1957) notes that dissonance between an environmental element and a behavioural element may be reduced by changing the action or feeling which the behavioural element represents. Behaviour and feelings are frequently modified with new information (p. 19) and social support (p. 191). "The reality which impinges on the person will exert pressures in the direction of bringing the appropriate cognitive elements into correspondence with that reality". (p. 11) Later, Festinger and associates (1964) stress the importance of the pre-decision process components. The spreading of alternatives apart in terms of attractiveness, the objective, impartial gathering and evaluation of information about the alternatives involved in the choice, and time spent in discussing new alternatives or in thinking about better alternatives are important. (pp. 129-30)

Maslow (1962) criticizes the tendency in western culture for cultural institutions controlling, inhibiting and suppressing the original nature of man: his creativeness (p. 183). Man, given the opportunity will choose what is good for his growth (p. 206). Externally given value systems have failed. (p. 206)

The interdependence of cognition and affect with cognition providing the base seems to be supported in the design of a teaching-learning strategy. The learner would be actively engaged in processes leading to meaningful decisions.

(c) Piagetian Theory of Correspondence of Cognition and Affect

Piaget observes:

> . . . children not only reasoned differently from adults, but also that they had quite different world views. . . in the child's view objects like stones and clouds are imbued with motives, intentions, and feelings, while mental events such as dreams and thoughts are endowed with corporality and force. (1968, p. 3)

Piaget states that there is no such thing as a purely cognitive state or a purely affective state. Stages of affectivity correspond exactly to stages of the development of structures. Neither one precedes the other. They are parallel to each other. (1961 (2), p. 2)

Piaget describes the stages of intelligence as a study of the formation of operational structures (1961 (1), pp. 2-6). He distinguishes four periods. As this study is concerned with pupils at the Grade Five (5) level it is assumed that they will be at the third stage, that of concrete operations. However, it would seem likely that some students could be classified in the formal operational stage.

Piaget states that there exists in the field of feelings something that corresponds to conservation in the cognitive field, and something that corresponds to reversible operations, and that it exists in a part of affective life: moral sentiments. This is the moral obligation, equivalent to the logical structure, which imposes values. In the pre-operational stage one cannot speak of conservation. Piaget's studies of the moral development of the child (1932) cite many instances of the lack of generalizability of moral sentiments at this stage. At the pre-operational stage truth is an obligation toward adults. Some of these studies are replicated and confirmed by Durkin (1959, 1959, 1961).

At the third stage of concrete operations Piaget observes operations of intelligence and conservation. The affective correspondence to the operations of intelligence is a morality of reciprocity, replacing the morality of obedience. Feeling of justice between students for example, is independent of instructions and orders of adults. Piaget refers to will as the affective equivalent of the cognitive operation. (1961 (2), p. 6)

Piaget examines the concept of will, and views morality as a whole as an apparatus of conservation of affective values, by means of obligations analogous to cognitive conservations (1961 (3), pp. 7-12). For Piaget will is analogous to operations of intelligence, but being an affective operation it deals with values, actions and decisions. Having will is to possess a permanent scale of values which direct behaviour.

At the fourth stage when the child becomes capable of reasoning on the possible, the probable, and not just on the real, new feelings are attached to social realities, and essentially ideal realities. At this stage Piaget refers to formation of personality, which is the supreme synthesis of the affective life, when the individual is able to group and regulate the whole of his values (1961 (2), p. 7).

Several authorities while not explicitly stating affective-cognitive interdependence or correspondence, appear to make inferences in this direction. Bruner (1970) states that education can no longer strike an exclusive posture of neutrality and objectivity. Knowledge has to be in the context of action and commitment (p. 78). Earlier Bruner (1947, 1948) states social sensitization as an initial and organizing factor in perception. Bayles (1952), Broudy (1954), Kubie (1967) and Hamlin (1967) stress the importance of insight; seeing, feeling and apprehending a new pattern of experience. Rogers (1964, 1969) and Glatt (1970) advocate this type of experiencing to avoid the development of stereotypes.

It appears that the capacity for formulating a fully rational value judgment is achieved at the highest stage of development. The "concrete individual" shows a tendency to polarize, depends on social areas related to role and status and has only a fair capacity to assume roles and delineate means-ends relationships (O. J. Harvey, 1969). These conclusions appear to be supported by ego-development theory. (Loevinger, 1966, 1969; Kohlberg, 1969; Erikson, 1950; Sullivan et al, 1970) It appears that value clarification is integrally related to stages of intelligence and ego development.

Blatt (1969) states that students at a given age can understand the arguments of all stages below their own and also understand the arguments of students at one stage higher than their own. A recent source (Values Education, 1971) suggests that the "concrete individual" use a rudimentary procedure for value clarification encouraging the children to be "autonomous from" the teacher; listing positive and negative statements, finding causes and solutions, justifying points of view opposite to that of the normative structure, developing different points of view, and feeling the importance of the topic under discussion.

(d) Group Processes and the Response to Value Clarification

The process of value clarification can be either a group or individual response. In the discussion and clarification of value issues in the classroom the group response is particularly important. Peer evaluation can be utilized as a prime motivator instead of pressure of external evaluation by the teacher. The negative relationship of external evaluation to developing creativity has already been suggested.

Co-figurative learning or peers teaching equals with the teacher as organizer, developer and coordinator appears basic in creating a "climate" which is conducive towards discussion, honest reaction and expression about a pertinent value issue. The teacher's role however, is critical as the person of influence (Huebner, 1966, p. 21). Halpin (1969) notes that leadership involves two dimensions of behaviour; consideration (dealing with people) and initiating structure (dealing with tasks). Horowitz (1969) stresses the importance of balance between these two dimensions. It appears that co-figurative learning can only take place when the influence of the teacher is such that the students feel free to clarify without external evaluation being imposed.

Many authorities stress that the teacher restrain himself from the urge to tell. The creative and sharing atmosphere depends a great deal on the teacher observing this restriction on his behaviour (Olmstead, 1959; Hare, 1962; Deutsh, 1969). Deutsh notes that the "strategy of mutual problem solving and the tactics of openness, persuasion and sharing elicit and are elicited by a cooperative situation" (p. 27). Deutsh also notes that people become motivated to maintain a favourable view of themselves and are less strongly motivated to hold such a view of others when there is the stress of external evaluation or inadequate information. (p. 14)

The ability to place oneself in the others shoes appears difficult to develop in people, but it seems that the "climate" established by the teacher is vital in order to bring about co-figurative learning. His role as a morale builder, process facilitator and observer appear all important.

III. Value Theory and Empirical Thinking

(a) Value Theory

This section of the review intends to clarify the meaning of the term "value", its dimensions, and implications for the interpretation of value issues.

Raths states:

> . . . if the enterprise of value education is to have any real impact on the personal lives of students it must somehow help them to clarify and analyse what they know and value. (1966, p. 38)

Historically value theory has been in the domain of philosophy. More recently it has come within the realms of psychology, sociology economics and political science.

Dukes (1955) and Tisdale (1961) review value theory in psychology. Becker and McClintock (1967) review value theory with emphasis on behavioural decision theory in economics and political science. In this study an attempt is made to review implications of psychological value theory using Tisdale's classification. (1961)

Tisdale in his dissertation designates five categories in endeavouring to clarify the construct of value. The relations of inherent biological requirements of the organism constitute the first category. Maslow (1959, 1962), Goldstein (1959), Murphy (1947) and Fromm (1955) view values as needs, the latter two also stressing the importance of environmental and personal interaction. Brickner

(1944) and Bull (1941) view values neurologically, seeing the focus in a specific part of the organism.

Tisdale's second categorization underlines the motivational nature of values, while recognizing innate roots, with Spranger (1928) and Allport (1931, 1937, 1961) the main theorists. Bruner and Goldman (1947) and Bruner, Postman and McGinnies (1948) use Allport's model and emphasize the social value of an object in human perception.

Another categorization groups values which emphasize preference or choice, with Dewey (1938, 1939, 1944) the pioneer. Dewey's focus is on expanding experiences, the learner participating in purposes which direct his activities in the learning process involving foresight of consequences (1939, pp. 72-78) and valuing as a mode of behaviour prizing towards things and people (1944). Morris (1956), Woodruff (1949), Scrickel (1943), Rice (1943, 1944) and Geiger (1944, 1950) in addition to preferential experiencing, view situational factors as important.

Rogers (1964, 1969) advocates a return to the infant's way of valuing where the individual enhances or actualizes his thoughts and feelings. Rogers views students as gradually growing to distrust their own experiencing, adopting values of others in order to hold love. He advocates restoring contact with experience where students can develop a sense of worth. What appears implicit in Rogers' approach to the valuing process is the individual having the security of trust to be able to clarify problems and meanings for himself. Rogers stresses the need for enhancing what is unique in each person, of helping individuals to capitalize on their own way of looking at the environment and associated problems.

Rogers underlines the importance for the need for the individual to have empathic understanding of others which allows him to know the real self of others (1959, 1969). According to Rogers' learning is facilitated when the student participates responsibly in the learning process (1969, p. 162). The importance of individual preference or choice appears to receive strong emphasis by Rogers.

Values as concepts is the fourth categorization. Tisdale refers to definitions within this as limiting, ignoring the many interaction components.

A fifth category portrays values as situational relationships (Kohler, 1944; Lewin and Grabbe, 1945; and Catton, 1959).

Tisdale finally concludes that values are "inferred motivational constructs associated with perceived differences in goal directed behaviour and indicated by the selection of action alternatives within social situations (p. 168).

The complexity of the term value is apparent. Values have motivational significance. They do not operate independently of either the biological organism or of the social field. They are determined to a considerable degree by individual choice and involve perception. They are relatively stable in comparison to attitudes. They involve a process for their continuation which involves cognition and affect. They appear to influence greatly the life and behaviour patterns of individuals. What appears crucial in the development of a valuing process which encourages personal choice is the development of a cognition basis within the framework of the social context. "Students cannot value in a vacuum". (Experiences in Decision Making, 1971, p. 5)

(b) Empirical Inquiry

The pervasive nature of values and valuing is expressed by many authorities. It is the intent of this review to indicate some procedures that appear to assist in developing a rationale for the proposed study.

Taba states:

> Values are implicit in the very functioning of the culture, from the use of technical devices to the requirements of jobs and civic participation. They are implicit also in institutional dynamics and the forms into which education is cast, from grouping to counselling. This means also that education for values is all pervasive and largely unconscious. The task of education is to make this process conscious, rationally defensible, and as far as the role of curriculum is concerned, more effective. (1962, p. 69)

Taba views present reflective thinking techniques as not conducive to dealing with values.

> . . . the very objects of loyalty which create cohesion and common goals are relegated to personal prejudice and hidden motives. Reflective thought tends to be spent on means, and is withdrawn from goals. As a result the human mind is captivated by habits and methods of thinking which tend to ignore the problems most threatening and crucial to mankind. There is a tendency for these issues to be resolved by pre-scientific and irrational methods rather than by empirical treatment. (1962, p. 44)

Models of reflective thinking have been developed by Dewey (1933), Hullfish and Smith (1961) and Massialas (1966). Raup (1950) establishes four phases of practical judgment, with four associated moods of judging (indicative, optative, contemplative, and imperative). Stanley (1950) sees Raup's work as an extension of Dewey's model, involving people in social decision making and with emphasis on optative and contemplative moods. Broudy (1954) proposes a strategy with insight and mastery as its objectives.

Other models stress the concept of valuation. Columbia Associates (1933), Weisskopf (1951), Metcalf (1963). Raths (1966) and Rogers (1964, 1969) seem to view the student participating in a decision making role integrating thoughts and feelings. As Metcalf (1963) has stated, "we can teach valuing, not values."

Many authorities underline the emphasis for the need for valuing as a learning process. Lewin (1945) states the re-education involves total life changes affecting beliefs, emotions, values and knowledge. Geiger (1950) stresses the importance of human choice in inquiry into cultural problems. Dukes (1955) views the process as a sensitizer having an organizing role in cognitive life. Kubie (1959) sees an educational experience as involving the child to face the conflicts from which he shrinks. Allport (1961) states that any strategy must start with the situation as the students find it, integrating experiences with new ones. Schacter and Singer (1962) conclude that students should have opportunity to label their feelings to cognitive aspects of a situation. Rogers (1964) concludes that a valuing process is effective to the degree that the individual is open to his own experiencing. Torkelson (1967) states that children should become engaged in differentiation and integration as objective ways of examining values. Bruner (1970) concludes that emphasis on social and personal relevance could bring knowledge and affective conviction together.

The idea of inquiry learning in the classroom appears to have developed from a need to make cognitive learning more interesting and meaningful for students. (Dewey, 1960; Phenix, 1964) In science it received strong promotion in the sixties (Suchman, 1964). In social studies it has been advocated by Goldmark (1968) and other authorities.

The idea of valuing appears to have developed from a need to involve children's emotions and feelings in thought processes, whereby they might be better able to realize themselves, and understand more completely the complexities of social conditions. This idea has become clarified for education by the works of Dewey (1938), Rogers (1964) and Raths (1966).

Whereas inquiry appears well established as a viable procedure in the classroom, the idea of valuing has not been generally accepted. It could perhaps be said that teachers, students, parents and administrative personnel have not yet decided what the idea involves, what procedures to be used and what the implications are.

Louis Raths and associates attempt to deal with this problem.

> . . . thinking may be understood as a method of inquiry which is directed toward understanding.

> In the valuing process there is one added factor, that of making a decision. Thinking may help us to see the alternatives which are relevant, and valuing helps us in the process of choosing from among these alternatives. (1966, p. 201)

For Raths value is taken to denote "those beliefs, purposes, attitudes . . . that are chosen freely, thoughtfully and acted upon." (p. 38)

Raths and associates develop a valuing process based on their value definition which emphasizes the three processes of choosing, prizing and acting. The intent is to help children clarify for themselves what they value, based upon their conception of humanity. Values are viewed as personal things which to be of significance penetrate the living of the person who holds them (p. 38).

Free choice, a reliance on attitudinal-type statements being elicited from pupils, and a lack of a cognitive basis may be viewed as inadequacies in Raths' value theory. However, one cannot be critical without understanding what his theory was designed for. The role of the teacher is clear for Raths:

> What he does is to create conditions that aid children in finding values if they choose to do so. . . value development is likely to be one of the goals of the school, and, if so, it should be encouraged by providing regular experiences that will help raise to the value level the beliefs, feelings, interests, and activities children bring with them. (p. 47)

Other purposes were promoted by the valuing process according to Raths:

> For example, research shows that when the valuing process, was promoted with children who

> were very apathetic, overconforming, flighty and likely to act in a variety of poses of "phony" roles, this type of behaviour became noticeably less acute and less frequent. There is also evidence that these techniques help children who are very indecisive, who are very inconsistent, or who are chronic dissenters. Other research showed the valuing process to help under-achievers. . . (pp. 47-48)

Dissertations based on Raths' three processes tend to support these statements. (Klevan, 1957; Simon, 1958; J. Raths, 1960; Jones, Machnits and Martin, 1960; Lang, 1962; Wasserman, 1962) Other studies use Raths' methodology with inservice programs for teachers. (Gagnon, 1965; Crellin, 1968)

Raths' basic value processes do not appear to have been researched in the area of social studies. However, it seems that they were not initially intended for this use.

From a review of dissertations over the past twenty years it seems that only recently have researchers looked at the process of valuing with classes of students. Gray (1968) identifies fifteen value-education outcomes appropriate for secondary social studies. Higgins (1968) explores the valuing process of fourth grade pupils when they were asked to write about their fears, desires, wishes, concerns and goals. Sandford and Sieders (1970) in a similar study with third, fourth and fifth grade pupils report positive value status shifts. McClarin (1970) studies a group of students who are encouraged to experience valuation within a science unit and stresses the importance of personal feelings in making decisions. He recommends that a close look be taken at the valuing process as a bridge between the cognitive and the affective domain.

The Alberta 1971 Social Studies Curriculum, Experiences in Decision Making, suggests the adoption of Raths' valuing process. Experiences involving both emotional reactions and intellectual understandings are stressed. (pp. 9-11) Affective objectives are those outlined by Krathwohl and associates (1964) cognitive objectives by Bloom and associates (1956). "Knowledge of specific terminology and facts provide the basis for dealing with social problems and understanding concepts, generalizations, theories and structures." (p. 12)

This approach, in giving priority to valuing, appears fraught with the split between cognitive skills and affective concerns. This study extends the work of Raths, Taba and Clegg and Hills and attempts to integrate both components more fully into a viable process.

Summary

This chapter attempts to synthesize and clarify salient points to justify the use of a cognitive affective strategy to clarify value issues. Such a strategy is favoured over a basically cognitive one for a number of specific reasons.

(A) Sociological

1. If it is accepted that one of the functions of the school is to help create personality, the individual must be able to make choices that are relevant (Raths,

1961, p. 292). This would involve implementation of both cognitive skills and affective concerns.

2. The lag of the non-material culture may be halted only by a program of value-education on a large scale (Mannheim, 1940, p. 114). This would necessitate the school being involved in methods of inquiry that include the feelings component (Raup, 1950, p. 178). This implies implementation of both cognitive and affective objectives in any viable strategy. Inquiry methods have not been able to settle conflicts (Stanley, 1950, p. 186).

3. The facing of issues in life should become a part of one's development. Protectionism (Wiener, 1954) makes value reappraisal difficult (Hatcher, 1966, p. 245). An open examination of issues confronts students with the situation. The student combines cognitive skills and affective concerns in this examination.

4. If we accept the concept of value space (Catton, 1959) the individual reacts both cognitively and affectively in developing his behavioural patterns within a social context. Life changes involve values, emotion, knowledge (Lewin and Grabbe, 1945; Scriven, 1966; Bruner, 1970). This would indicate that a cognitive affective strategy would be more beneficial over a basically cognitive strategy.

5. Several authorities underline the emphasis for the need

for the individual to become involved in the processes of social change, thus making the curriculum more relevant. (Smith, Stanley and Shores, 1957, p. 21; Taba, 1962; Meade, 1969; Hutchins, 1969). Rogers (1969) and Jones (1968) emphasize the importance of self discovered learning and the coordination of cognitive skills with emotional and imaginal skills.

(B) Psychological

1. The organizing role of emotion (Leeper, Duffy, Webb, 1948) in directing behaviour indicates the need to integrate the emotive component into any teaching strategy. The cognitive base to emotional reaction (Arnold, 1960; Schacter and Schacter, 1962; Izard, 1964; Murray, 1964) indicates the need to involve both cognitive skills and affective concerns into a teaching strategy.
2. Affective concerns are recognized generally as having a considerable motivational influence to promote interest and student learning. However, most teaching strategies stress the implementation of the more tangible cognitive skills. If we accept the viewpoint of Young (1959), Huxley (1962), Kubie (1959, 1967), Hamlin (1967), Tomkins (1964) and Izard (1964) affective concerns become integral components of a teaching learning strategy.

3. W. James (1890), Lecky (1945), Raup (1950), Bruner (1970) stress the unity of thought and feeling. This implies cognitive affective unity.
4. If we accept the view that inconsistent cognitions about the attitude object (Roseberg, 1956; Osgood and Tannenbaum, 1955; Harvey, 1964) involve decisions towards congruity we would stress the importance of a cognition base to a teaching learning strategy with the expression and relationship of affective concerns.
5. Piagetian theory of correspondence of cognition and affect (1932, 1961, 1968) appears to support the utilization of a cognitive affective teaching learning strategy. At the concrete operational stage conservation of affective values parallels cognitive conservations.
6. The complexity of the term "value" makes any simple definition limiting. If the term is denoted to include the wide definition given by Tisdale (1961) the implications for teaching appear considerable. Values involving needs, intrinsic motivation, preference and the situational relationships appear instrumental in the determination of our behaviour, life style and personality. Far more than cognition is involved. Thus to clarify value issue situations more than a basically cognitive strategy would appear necessary. A cognitive affective strategy would appear to have the added

advantage of adding the degree of personal concern, commitment, and interest in the clarification. Fact would not be separated from feeling. (Jones, 1967, 1968)

7. The success of co-figurative learning appears to be dependent on the "climate" created by the teacher (Huebner, 1966; Halpin, 1969) and the avoidance of stress imposed by external evaluation. (Deutsh, 1969) The ability to place oneself in the other person's shoes appears directly related to these factors.

(C) Models and Procedures

1. Taba (1962, p. 44) states that reflective thinking techniques are not suitable for dealing with value problems that concern all people in that little emphasis is placed on goals. A process or strategy that clarifies goals would necessitate the treatment of affective concerns (Lewin, 1945; Dukes, 1955; Bruner, 1970). It would seem that if the concern is for understanding of basic content a cognitive approach would seem appropriate. If, however, we are concerned with goals or the clarification of a value situation the appropriate strategy would include both cognitive skills and affective concerns.
2. Whereas both inquiry and valuing involve the student playing a positive role in coming to an understanding,

valuing is more all inclusive to the extent that personal decisions are based on thoughts and feelings in relation to a meaningful problem or situation. This process involves both cognitive skills and affective concerns. (McClarin, 1970)

3. Taba (1969) in formulating strategies to implement cognitive skills and affective concerns stresses the importance of overlap between the two.

This study attempted to identify components of a teaching learning strategy that would assist learners in the clarification of value issues. With this major purpose in mind the investigator selected grade five classes and utilized three specified strategies with appropriate value issues. Students' written assertions and oral statements were carefully examined as well as their positions on each value topic at specified time periods. Questions were generated which could form the basis for further investigations. Several problems were also investigated which appeared to be related to the main purpose of the study.

The study design and procedures are outlined in Chapter III.

CHAPTER III

THE DESIGN

This chapter contains an explanation of the design that was employed and a description of the materials that were used. The strategies that were developed are outlined. The samples are discussed. The value issues that were utilized, the recording and testing procedures employed are explained. The statistical methods used to assist in the analysis of the data are also included.

I. Value Clarification Strategies

The main purpose of this study was to examine pupil outcomes resulting from the use of three strategies and involving four relevant value issues, in the determination of a teaching-learning strategy which would assist learners in clarifying value issues.

This section outlines the formulation of strategy levels and the cognitive-affective components of these levels. Each level draws from sources that state ideas and outline models or strategies of reflective thinking and cognitive skills. Each level also draws from sources stating ideas and outlining strategies that deal with exploring feelings, making choices and acting on decisions. The interrelationship of cognitive skills and affective concerns is implicit in the strategy levels. It was on the basis of the rationale established in Chapter II that the strategy levels and components were designed.

Specific questions comprising a teaching-learning strategy were outlined in connection with each strategy level. A brief rationale statement introduced each strategy level, indicating its importance and the interrelationship of cognitive skills and affective concerns.

The determination of five strategy levels was arrived at as a result of examining models and strategies of reflective thinking and valuing. While there appears to be a considerable overlap between these levels, the omission of any one would appear to leave a definite gap in the process which leads students to clarify value issues and make decisions. The use of additional levels could make the process unnecessarily complex.

The value of these strategies and their level components are seen as follows:

1. They interrelate cognitive skills and affective concerns which other strategies do not do, or have not made explicit.
2. The total cognitive-affective strategy can be utilized, or either the cognitive or affective components. Comparisons could thus be made. Also comparisons could be made to an approach that is relatively non-structured but guided by the interests and concerns of the students.

This being an exploratory study no attempt was made to make comparisons between strategies involving groups of students. Rather

Strategy Levels (1)

Rationale: Many models of reflective thinking begin with the recognition of a problem organizing relevant facts. Some authorities see the need for a close personal involvement at this stage also. Level one of this strategy utilizes both these components in order to establish the personal identity of the individual with the facts of the problem.

Cognitive Emphasis

Dewey (1933)
Raup (1950)
Hullfish & Smith (1951)
Clegg & Hills (1968)
Taba (1969)

Defining	Expressing
Facts, Observation	Feelings, Emotions
(List Group Label)	(State, Identify Experiences)

Affective Emphasis

Wieman (1950)
Broudy (1954)
Raths (1966)
Taba (1969)
Fraenkel (1969)

Dewey (Model of Reflective Thinking)
  *1. Recognition of a problem. (4)**
Raup (Phases of Practical Judgment) (4)**
  *1. Clarification of common purpose.
Hullfish-Smith (Phases of Reflective Activity) (4)**
  *1. Recognition of a Problem Situation.

Clegg and Hills (Valuing Strategy for Social Studies)
  *1. Determination of facts, observations
Taba (Developing Concepts)

Wieman (Process to include psycho-social context into Scientific Inquiry. (3)

  *1-3 Expressing thoughts and feelings.

Broudy (Teaching-Learning Process) (6)
  *1. Motivation
Raths (Basic Value Processes) (7)
  *1. Choosing Freely.
Taba (Exploring Feelings)
Fraenkel (Affective Strategy in Conflict Situations)(5)
  *3-4 Identify thoughts and feelings -- Emphasize with others in the situation.

Strategy Questions

Cognitive	Affective
1. Can you explain the problem? What are some important facts from the information you have?	1. Is the problem important to you? After looking at the facts how do you feel about the problem?

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*1. -- denotes first level of model or strategy from the particular source.

**(4) -- denotes number of steps or levels in the model or strategy from the particular source.

Strategy Levels (2)

Rationale: Many strategies stress the need to develop explanations leading to generalizations. This assists in the clarification of the problem. Relating feelings to events, a value identification, involves the individual more completely in this process. Several authorities see this aspect sadly neglected in models of thinking and teaching strategies. Level 2 combines both these components in the gaining of a deeper and more personal clarification.

Cognitive Emphasis

Dewey (1933)
Raup (1950)
Hullfish-Smith (1951)
Metcalf (1963)
Clegg & Hills (1968)
Taba (1969)

LEADING TO	LEADING TO
Explanations Generalizations	Experiencing & Clarification

Affective Emphasis

Columbia Assoc. (1923)
Raup (1950)
Weisskopf (1951)
Rogers (1956-64)
Jones (1967)
Taba (1969)

Dewey
2. Analysis
Raup
2. Survey and Assessment
Hullfish-Smith
2. Clarification
Metcalf (Structure to Explore a Value Issue)
2. Collect data from different viewpoints
Clegg & Hills
2. Discriminate relevant information
Taba (Explaining and Generalizing)

Columbia Associates (Model of Valuation)
2. Value identification
Raup (4) (Moods of judging)
2-3 Optative and Contemplative Moods
Weisskopf (Stages of the Creative Process) (4)
2. Incubation
Rogers (individual's openness to experiencing)
Jones (free use of imagination-incubation)
Taba (relate feelings to events)

Strategy Questions

Cognitive	Affective
2. What are the different points of view in this information? What are the reasons given for each of these?	2. How do you feel about each of the different points of view? How would you feel if you were a person in favour of each one?

Strategy Level~~s~~ (3)

Rationale: Many models and strategies stress the stage where alternatives are defined, and the consequences made clear before a solution is arrived at. The role of the individual as an active decision maker in this process using his knowledge and his feelings is seen by many authorities as deepening his understanding by becoming more personally involved. Level 3 involves the individual in suggesting, exploring and choosing in defining alternatives and evaluating consequences.

Cognitive Emphasis

Columbia Assoc. (1923)
Dewey (1933)
Hullfish-Smith (1961)
Metcalf (1963)
Raths (1966)
Clegg & Hills (1968)
Taba (1969)
Raup (1950)

Noting	Exploring
Alternatives	Alternatives
Consequences	Consequences

Affective Emphasis

Raup (1950)
Weisskopf (1951)
Rogers (1956-64)
Raths (1966)
Jones (1967)
Taba (1969)

Columbia Associates
3. Exploration of Solutions
Dewey
3. Suggestions of Possible Solutions
Raup
3. Relating ideas to the situation
Hullfish-Smith
3(a) Hypothesis formation
Metcalf
3. Speculate on Effects
Raths
2. Choosing from Alternatives

Raup
3. Contemplative Mood (gaining perspective)
Weisskopf
3. Illumination
Rogers (individual's openness to experiencing)
Raths
3. Choosing after consideration
Jones (deepen the educational process-illumination)
Taba (considering alternatives)

Clegg & Hills
3. Enumerating Alternatives
Taba (stating new generalizations
and inferences)

Strategy Questions

Cognitive	Affective
3. Are there other points of view that should be considered? Which appear most favourable? What would be the results of these points of view?	3. Explain why you feel these are important? Why? Knowing these results how would you feel if you were a person in favour of each one?

Strategy Levels (4)

Rationale: Several authorities refer to testing of hypotheses or alternatives and consequences following a complete examination of alternatives and consequences. The involvement of the individual in a decision-making role whereby the choice made is his own is viewed by many authorities as a value decision. (affirmation) Level 4 combines thought and feeling in arriving at final decisions.

Cognitive Emphasis

Dewey (1933)
Metcalf (1963)
Hullfish-Smith (1961)
Massialas (1966)
Clegg & Hills (1968)
Taba (1969)

Comparing & Testing	Affirming
Alternatives Consequences	Alternatives & Consequences

Affective Emphasis

Bayles (1952)
Weisskopf (1951)
Raths (1966)
Jones (1967)
Taba (1969)
Kubie (1967)

Dewey
4. Testing of Consequences
Metcalf
4. Rate Effects according to constant criteria
Hullfish-Smith
4.(b) Hypothesis Testing
Massialas (Phases of Reflective Inquiry (6))
5. Evidencing
Clegg and Hills
4. Noting consequences of alternatives
Taba (applying generalizations-identifying conditions and developing diverging views)

Weisskopf
4. Verification
Bayles (Behavioral Change)
3. Insight-realization
Raths
4-5 Being happy with choice and affirming choice
Jones (verification)
Kubie (insight-integration of thought and feeling)
Taba (analysis of values)

Strategy Questions

Cognitive

4. Which points of view now seem the best from all considered? What are the results of each of these? Which one seems the best?

Affective

4. Do you feel happy with your choice? Why? How do you feel about your decision? How is it important to you?

Strategy Levels (5)

Rationale: Several models of reflective thinking stress the importance of clarifying a course of action following the decision reached. A re-examination or reappraisal (involving both thought and feeling) views the decision in total perspective. (re-affirmation) Level 5 leads to a final decision and course of action with reaffirmation involving both cognitive skills and affective concerns.

Cognitive Emphasis

Dewey (1933)
Raup (1950)
Hullfish and Smith (1961)
Massialas (1966)
Clegg and Hills (1968)

Clarification of
Course of Action

Reasons

Re-Affirmation

Affective Emphasis

Raths (1966)
Clegg and Hills (1968)

Dewey
5. Judgement of a selected solution
Raup
4. Fusion of ideal and the existant in a program of action (imperative mood-decisions for action)
Hullfish-Smith
4. Action based on choice of hypothesis
Massialas
6. Generalization
Clegg and Hills
5-6 Decision on Course of Action -- Re-examination

Raths
6-7 Acting on Choice; Repeating pattern in life.
Clegg and Hills
6. Re-examination

Strategy Questions

Cognitive

5. What actions should be taken? What are your main reasons? If you were to study this problem again would you come to the same decision?

Affective

5. How do you feel about this action? Has this action changed the way you feel about this problem? Do you feel differently than at the beginning?

the emphasis was to view some of the variety of outcomes that result from different teachers using certain strategies with selected value issues. One of the purposes in mind was to formulate a value clarification strategy that appeared to be supported by the rationale as outlined in Chapter II and the results of the analysis as reported in Chapter IV.

II. Value Issues and Materials

The selection of value issues had to take into account several factors. Relevancy, interest, novelty and scope of the value issue were considered.

Relevancy appeared to be most important. The topic to become a value issue had to be viewed by students at the particular grade level as pertinent and timely for discussion, and one which constituted a problem which was in need of exploration and solution. The interest factor was considered important so that the students would more likely become more meaningfully involved.

The novelty factor had to be considered because some topics might have already been dealt with in classes and it was intended to involve the students in value issues which had not previously been discussed in the classroom.

The scope of the topic was considered important. The value issues to be considered for the study were intended to involve the students for equal amounts of time and as a result some topics might not be suitable to handle in the light of this restriction.

With these considerations in mind the selection of value issues was made. Students in two grade five classrooms were asked to write down what topics they would like to discuss in their social studies classes that seemed interesting and presented something of a problem. An example was given -- the topic of the "Indians" and the question of whether the white man is prejudiced against the Indian. This example was chosen because some classes had dealt with this as a value issue that could be discussed with students in Division II (Grades 4 - 6) classrooms. This had been an example of a value issue that was suggested for teacher use at this level. From the topics suggested by students a list was developed from which four topics were selected. These were: Snowmobiles, Hitchhiking, Hunting Big Game Animals and Capital Punishment.

Information was prepared for use in the selected classrooms which would provide the necessary basis for students to clarify value issues relevant to the four topics. This information was prepared by the investigator. Written material from a wide variety of sources and representing different viewpoints was collected with modifications made to render it appropriate for use by grade five students. Similarly pictures and pictorial representations were gathered and selected for utilization. Thus all classes involved in the study utilized the same materials for each value issue. Each week for a time period of four weeks a new value issue was discussed in the selected classes of grade five students. During the time the pilot study was in progress the teachers that were to be involved in the study itself observed. As a result of these observations the nature of the materials to be utilized by the students was modified.

The source of materials utilized for the value issues came from provincial and federal government departments, newspaper editorials, and newspaper photographs and editorial cartoons. The materials were all current and up to date. Modifications were made to the written materials, especially the editorial viewpoints, in terms of vocabulary and sentence structure. Provincial laws and statutes were simplified in detail to allow students to readily comprehend the specific regulations. During the preparation of these materials the teachers involved in the actual study made many of the suggested changes to determine the suitability of the materials to be used in their classes. The investigator met with the teachers following class sessions of the pilot study, and also with the teachers in their respective schools. By the time the actual study was about to be undertaken the materials to be utilized by the students had been determined to the satisfaction of the teachers involved in the study. Copies of these materials are provided in Appendix A.

III. Design Procedure

The design of the study is diagrammed as follows:

Value Issue	CLASSROOM I	 II	 III
1	Open	Cognitive-Affective	Cognitive
2	Cognitive	Open	Cognitive-Affective
3	Cognitive-Affective	Cognitive	Open
4	Cognitive-Affective	Cognitive-Affective	Cognitive-Affective

Three classrooms served as the treatment groups in this exploratory study. An additional classroom served as a non-treatment group, which did not participate in the treatment apart from completing test forms at the same periods of time as the other classes. The treatment groups were made up of intact grade five classrooms. Each group used three specified strategies, using a different one weekly for the first three value issues. On the fourth week all classes used the same strategy with the same value issue.

For the cognitive strategy an attempt was made to minimize the occurance of affective type questions and responses. The teacher's main role was to facilitate discussion using the cognitive questions that were specified by the strategy. In the case of the cognitive affective strategy the teacher's role was similar, but in addition to cognitive questions an equal number of affective-type questions were asked at the five strategy levels. In this strategy the teacher endeavoured to give equal emphasis to both kinds of questions, and at the same time gave the same amount of time to student response and interaction as with the cognitive strategy.

For both these strategies the teacher directed the student discussion with the aid of the questions at five strategy levels, following the pattern of five daily forty to forty-five minute periods of class time. For the open strategy the teacher introduced the students to the value issue by making sure the students understood the information that was presented to them. Thereafter the pupils raised questions amongst themselves and interacted without the teacher directed questions.

The importance of establishing a proper atmosphere was emphasized. (Raths, 1962, 1964, 1966, p. 168; Meux, 1971, p. 76 and p. 86) Students had to feel the importance of the topic, show enthusiasm and become motivated by the discussion in the sense that the clarification of the value issue was of significance to them and influenced the lives of people, besides themselves. The teacher had to be restrained from the urge to tell. These factors were discussed with the teachers involved and during the course of the pilot study procedures were refined and the role of the teacher became clearer in the conduct of the study.

Some of the basic procedure was as follows:

1. On the first day the teacher wrote the topic on the blackboard and the students completed a semantic differential test on the topic. Following completion of the test the value question was posed to the class. Some information that was relevant to the topic was

presented to each of the pupils in the class and the teacher ensured that the students understood its meaning. This was the same for all three strategies. In the case of cognitive and cognitive-affective strategies specific questions were directed by the teacher to the class. In the open strategy this was not done and students were free to discuss what they considered relevant.

2. On the second day editorial viewpoints, pictures, cartoons etc. were presented in each treatment group.
3. On subsequent days strategy level questions were followed when using the two teacher directed strategies. With the open strategy the students were free to discuss the value issue in any way they saw fit. In each strategy, however, a brief review took place for a few minutes at the start of each period. Also the main points of students' comments were recorded on experience charts. These were used for the review that took place at the start of each class period.
4. Students in each of the treatment classes were involved for a set time daily in the clarification of a value issue and reached their final decisions at the end of the week in the Friday class period. Each week a different value issue was clarified by these classes using the three different approaches. The same materials were used by all three classes.

5. Students in each of the treatment classes were asked to record their personal thoughts daily by utilizing five inch by eight inch "thought cards". The students recorded their thoughts in the five minute period at the end of each class period of discussion and handed them in. At the end of the Friday's period the students were asked to record their "final" decisions on the value issue that they had been discussing for the week. This kind of procedure was similar to ones conducted by other investigators researching into students' personal thoughts and values. (Raths, 1962, 1964, 1965; Higgins, 1968; Sandford and Seiders, 1970; Meux, 1971)
6. Post-test forms of the semantic differential were administered following completion of Friday's "final" decisions to indicate the students' positions on the topic following the week's discussion. Five weeks following completion of the post-test form a post-post test form was administered to indicate the nature of the students' position and any change that may have taken place.

The complete procedure devised is more specifically outlined in Appendix B. This represents the refined procedure as used in the main part of the study. The original procedure was modified as a result of suggested changes made during the period of the pilot study.

While the study was in progress the investigator observed the pupils in action in the various classes. Some of their comments and reactions were noted and their participation was observed. In order to check to see if the strategies were being closely followed some of the class sessions were tape-recorded. A summary of these recordings is outlined in Appendix C. The questions presented by the teacher are shown as well as the responses resulting from student discussion and interaction.

One of the greatest challenges faced by the teachers in the conduct of the study was the adoption of a somewhat different leadership role. The teacher had to restrain herself from the urge to tell, otherwise the creative and sharing atmosphere would have been restricted somewhat. The teacher's role in handling the discussion technique was somewhat more clearly defined as a result of discussion during the period that the pilot study was in progress.

IV. The Samples

Prior to the main study a pilot study was carried out. One grade five class from an open-area school in Edmonton participated. This class was not used in the main study. The main purposes of the pilot study were to observe the children in action, to note their reactions to the materials presented to them, to clarify the strategy level questions, to specify the role of the teacher when using the different strategies, and to involve the teachers who had agreed to participate in the main study. As a result of the pilot study the investigator was able to check on the suitability of the materials utilized and the time periods that seemed most suitable. Results of these observations and suggestions made by the teachers helped to modify and clarify the use of materials and strategies.

Prior to the Christmas holiday period the investigator made a request to the Edmonton Public School Board for six grade five classrooms from open-area schools. The principals of four schools were contacted and together with the social studies consultant for the Public Elementary Schools three classes of grade five students from two schools were selected to participate in the main study. One class was selected as a non-treatment class and another class was selected for the pilot study. The investigator met with teachers at the grade five level from the schools that were allocated, and explained the nature of the study to them. As a result of these discussions five teachers volunteered to become involved in the study. The samples used in the study are summarized in Table I.

The investigator considered the pilot study to be most valuable to resolve problems relating to strategy implementation, student reactions, suitability of materials and most important, involvement of teachers who had volunteered to become involved in the main study. It was agreed that the investigator himself conduct the pilot study in the one grade five class. The principals in the two schools whose grade five classes were to become involved in the main study agreed that their teachers who were to conduct the

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS BY CLASSES

School		Boys	Girls	Total
1	Pilot	16	14	30
2	Class 1	11	18	29
	Class 2	16	14	30
3	Class 3	16	14	30
4	Non-Treatment	15	15	30
	TOTALS	74	75	149

program could attend most of the class sessions of the pilot study that the investigator conducted. As all the schools were in the one area the teachers would not be absent from their schools for much more than one hour. All classes were in open-area team teaching arrangements, and the freeing of the teachers was facilitated with little difficulty. In one case the principal gladly agreed to take the class for the hour period each day.

Because the design of the study required the participation of classes of students using three differing strategies the teacher variable was considered to be a dominant factor. To ensure that the teachers were completely aware of the details of the program their involvement in the pilot study itself appeared crucial. The pilot study was conducted for the four weeks of February, during which time the investigator conducted the class daily utilizing the materials for the four value issues with the three strategies. One teacher was present for almost all sessions, another teacher for about two-thirds and the other teacher somewhat less. The investigator met with the teachers regularly to discuss the nature of the program's implementation.

During the course of the pilot study the teachers who participated in the main study observed the sessions from the back of the classroom, studied the use of the three strategies, the specific questions, the amount and nature of the discussions, the use of materials, blackboard and experience charts and the instrumentation procedures. As a result of meetings with the teachers some revisions were made to the information presented, and the procedures by which the students recorded their thoughts. Strategy level questions were made more specific, and the role of the teacher with respect to each strategy was more clearly determined. The teachers, as a result, were clear as to the nature of their roles prior to the beginning of the actual study and were completely familiar with all aspects of the study.

The main study took place during the four week period of March, 1972. Two grade five classrooms utilized were from the same school. These classes occupied different locations within the open area school plan, and the teachers conducted their classes at the same times daily. In the other school the classroom was also in the open area. In all three classes the program occupied a forty-five minute period of time prior to the morning recess break.

Three subjects were excluded from the study because they missed one-fourth or more of the study time. This reduced the number of students in the three treatment groups from 92 to 89.

V. The Measures

This was an exploratory study. The strategies employed involved students in a considerable amount of discussion and class interaction. Because of the limitations of the samples that were used no comparisons between classes were intended. Rather the intention of the investigator was to explore in greater depth student outcomes resulting from such a study. With limited numbers in the sample the investigator was able to analyze a variety of student outcomes, and not be restricted to the measurement of "end outcomes".

As the main purpose of the study was to suggest components that would comprise a viable teaching-learning strategy by which students would be assisted in the clarification of value issues the investigator sought to gain information continually from the students during the course of the entire program. Care had to be taken that this continual feedback did not interfere with the program proper, or that the students would regard this aspect as a chore. Because continual feedback from students seemed to be most desirable to gain as much information as possible, the investigator endeavoured to make this an integral part of the actual program. Student interest in this aspect of the program was considered essential. The completion of semantic differential forms at various stages was to be considered as an interesting challenge. The expression of thoughts on paper was not to be thought of as a chore, but rather as a challenge to the students, to put down their own personal thoughts about the value issue, many of which they did not have time to express in the class discussion sessions.

While the study was in progress the investigator observed the pupils in action on various occasions. Some of their comments and reactions were noted and their participation was observed. The investigator interviewed four students from each classroom weekly using the clarification procedure as developed by Chadwick (1969). As a result of these interviews verbal responses were gained from over half the students in the treatment classes.

A semantic differential test was administered to the treatment groups prior to the start of discussions on each value issue, upon completing each value, and five weeks following completion of the study of each value issue. This instrument indicated the student's position with respect to each value topic at various times.

In addition, a written questionnaire was completed by the students following completion of the study and the teachers involved were asked to comment on their experiences resulting from their involvement in the program.

Additional information was gained from the students' cumulative record cards. Intelligence scores, family background and student's interests were noted in order that the sample could be adequately described.

The measures used in the study are summarized as follows:

1. Students' daily written thoughts as expressed on five inch by eight inch thought cards and decision cards.
2. Students' verbal responses as recorded in interviews conducted by the investigator.
3. The student's position with respect to each value topic as measured by Pre, Post and Post-Post forms of a semantic differential.
4. Information gained from questionnaires completed by students following compldtion of the study.
5. Information gained by observation and reaction from

the teachers and students.

Each of the above will be described in some detail as they pertain to this particular study.

1. Written Responses to Value Issues

The students were asked to record their thoughts daily at the end of each class discussion. In this way they were encouraged to express their personal thoughts for the day, including those that were not brought out in the classroom discussion. This was regarded by the investigator as an effective technique when the students were given the opportunity to express themselves freely. Raths (1966, pp. 130-4), Higgins (1968) and Sandford and Seiders (1970) used similar techniques when students were engaged in value clarification. This technique was designed to get directly at the concerns and thoughts of the students. Seeing this information was gained from the students daily throughout the duration of the study a full range of student's thoughts were gathered from each of the value issues that was discussed.

The "Thought Card" consisted of a five inch (5") by eight inch (8") sheet, which was handed out to the students in the class five minutes before the end of each class period. Students were told they could express their thoughts in sentences or short statements, but that no care need be taken as far as spelling or grammar were concerned. The administration of these cards was conducted as follows: "We have about five minutes left of our class period and have discussed many ideas and suggestions about this issue. There may be some others that you think are important that we have not discussed. See if you can put down some of the thoughts that you think are good, those we have discussed or those that you think are particularly important that have not been discussed".

The sheets were coded and the students knew that these cards would not be used in any evaluation of their performance. The teacher on occasion would say, "I would certainly like to know how you feel about this issue, because I think you can provide some really good ideas, and there are many that we have not had time to discuss". In the period on Friday the "Thought Card" was replaced by a "Decision Card" as the students were encouraged to make their "final" decisions about the particular value issue under discussion.

The administration of this technique was refined during the pilot study, the time alotted and the nature of the instructions that were to be given, as the students were to be encouraged to express themselves as freely as possible. A psychologically safe classroom climate was regarded as essential. (Raths, 1966, p. 168) Since the feedback in terms of students' responses was cumulative and continual the investigator felt that such information and subsequent analysis could provide a basis for establishing a valuing clarification procedure that might be utilized for students at this grade level in the elementary school.

During the course of the pilot study the investigator gathered the thought cards and decision cards for each student.

For each student the five cards for each value issue were sorted together. The investigator carefully scrutinized the student's written responses in order to recognize some common elements in the nature of responses and to develop some kind of categorization system to assist in the coding and subsequent analysis of the responses.

During the time of this examination the investigator reviewed various categorization schemes to classify written statements. Both Taxonomies of Educational Objectives (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl, 1964) were carefully examined in the hope that the students' written assertions might be classified in accordance with categories in both domains. The recent N.C.S.S. Yearbook (1971) describing strategies and procedures for value analysis was also carefully examined.

Because the students involved in the study were predominantly functioning at Piaget's level of concrete operations, consideration had to be noted as to the kind of responses that would be expected. Implications of ego development theory (N.C.S.S. 1971) had to be considered also for the development of capabilities for value clarifications. For example, it could not be expected that the students could utilize all components of the two domains of the taxonomies. Similarly it could not be expected that the students would have reached the more advanced stages of moral development as proposed by Kohlberg (1969) and Loevinger (1966).

After reviewing the literature in the above fields and at the same time carefully examining the responses of students on the thought cards the investigator concluded that the responses could be divided basically into factual statements and valuative statements, realizing the unity of both. (James, 1890; Scheerer, 1954, p. 123; Rokeach, 1960, p. 399) The students' written responses could in addition be further subdivided with respect to the first three categories of the Bloom (1956) taxonomy and the first three categories of the Krathwohl (1964) taxonomy. The investigator realized the arbitrariness of such a classification scheme and the apparent degree of overlap both between cognitive and affective statements as well as between the subdivisions within each. However, some of the divisions seemed more "natural". In others it seemed more arbitrary. In spite of the many weaknesses of developing such a scheme the investigator attempted to devise a categorization procedure for the students' written statements.

The investigator after carefully scrutinizing the statements of students considered that most of the students' factual statements fell generally under the first three levels of Blooms' cognitive domain; namely; knowledge, comprehension and application. Knowledge involved the recall of specifics, methods and processes. Comprehension at the highest level dealt with the ability to interpret and develop conclusions. Application involved the ability to predict results and changes. Meux (1971) considered that factual assertions made by students could be classified according to whether they were particular, general or conditional. A particular assertion was a simple statement based on statistics, fact or observation. A general assertion was a deduction based on particular facts. A conditional assertion or "if-then" assertion indicated a probable cause effect relationship. The similarity between these three types of assertions and the levels of Bloom's taxonomy was apparent. The investigator thus decided to utilize the three fold division of factual assertions into particular, general and conditional.

Krathwohl's (1964) taxonomy of educational objectives in the affective domain was studied with the intent to categorize student statements that were not classified under the three divisions of factual assertions. The first three levels of the affective domain were: receiving, responding and valuing. At the first level the concern was the attending of the learner to certain phenomena. Responding involved a willingness and satisfaction in response. Valuing included a preference for a value and ideas of conviction. The investigator in the light of this framework endeavoured to devise a classification scheme to code the student responses that appeared to be primarily in the affective domain. Receiving did not really involve a written response and a basic subdivision was made between the value response and the value preference. After carefully considering all the students' responses in this area a further subdivision was made between those responses and value preferences that were unsupported and those that were supported.

A summary statement of the categories utilized in the classification of the students' daily written assertions is as follows:

A. Factual Assertions
   1. Particular
   2. General
   3. Conditional

B. Valuative Assertions
   1. Response
   2. Supported Response
   3. Preference
   4. Supported Preference

The investigator developed a classification system for coding students' written assertions and graduate students in elementary education were used to code a sample of the assertions. On the basis of this initial feedback the system was refined and another sample of assertions was coded. On the basis of these revisions a more detailed and precise classification system for coding students' written assertions was developed.

A sample of students' written assertions was next presented to a panel of three judges to code according to the classification scheme developed by the investigator. Three students' assertions from each of the three classes for the first value issue were typed onto sheets, and judges were asked to code the students' written assertions according to the classification scheme. The same procedure was followed for the second value issue. Once again on the basis of feedback from the judges some minor modifications were made to items of definition in the scheme. The procedure was then repeated for value issues three and four.

A statement of the classification system for coding students' written assertions is outlined in Appendix D.

There was complete interjudge agreement on 62.3% of examined assertions in Issue I, 78.8% in Issue II, 89.4% in Issue III, and 86.5% in Issue III. This was from 544 written assertions, representing 11.9% of the total number recorded from the four issues.

As a result of feedback gained following coding of students' written assertions from the first and second value issues some changes in definitions were made. This appeared to contribute toward the higher "full agreements" reached in coding students' written assertions in value issues three and four. It appeared that the judges became familiar with the coding procedure, the definitions used and were able to code more accurately according to the classification scheme. The judges had strong backgrounds in the social studies area and were aware of value clarification procedures employed with elementary school pupils.

One of the outcomes as evident in the written responses and verbal responses of students who participated in the study was the development of a degree of social sensitivity. It appeared that many of the students were concerned about the rights and welfare of others, the environmental conditions and the importance of animal life. While it was expected that students would have some difficulty in assuming the roles of others, some children appeared to show some identification or feelings of sympathy and empathy for other human beings. (Wright, 1942; Rogers and Long, 1966)

As the development of feelings of sympathy and concern for others appears as a desirable goal of social studies education the investigator attempted to identify statements that portrayed this feature. The same statements that were coded by three judges to substantiate the categorization procedure were used. Three different judges were used who also had strong backgrounds in social studies education to see if some agreement could be reached regarding those statements that appeared to show feelings of sympathy, concern for the welfare of others, environment and animal life.

Exmaples of these statements were indicated by the investigator, definitions made clear and the judges coded the same 544 statements on a yes-no basis. There was complete interjudge agreement on 85% of statements in Issue I, 85.4% in Issue II, 91.4% in Issue III and 89.9% in Issue IV.

The investigator then coded the students' written assertions for all four issues according to the classification scheme including the samples already coded by the judges. Similarly the same assertions were checked on a yes-no basis for identification.

2. Students' Verbal Responses--As Recorded in Interviews Conducted by the Observer

This study attempted to overcome some of the weaknesses of earlier studies which tended to rely completely on the students' written responses in exploring the valuing process of elementary pupils. (Higgins, 1968; Sandford and Seiders, 1970) McClarin (1970) and Boags (1970) pointed to the expression of personal feelings and level of affective involvement which could not be determined by paper and pencil procedures. Raths (1966, pp. 149-152) referred to the decision making interview as being ideally suited to value clarification. More recently Chadwick (1969) outlined and tested an interview technique for the expressed purpose of value clarification. The investigator considered the suggestions as put forward by Raths, but generally opted for the procedure as outlined by Chadwick. A summary of this value clarification procedure is presented in Appendix E.

The purposes of this value clarification procedure were as follows:

1. To determine how the students feel about the particular value issue.
2. To determine what procedures are useful to the students in helping them see things clearly and make decisions.
3. To ascertain student reactions to these kinds of value clarification procedures in the social studies.

The investigator conducted all of these value clarification interviews during school time following the classroom periods. The investigator had met with all classes before the beginning of the study, had talked to the classes and shown slides on the U.S.S.R. and France. The students had just completed work on these countries and this served as review periods and gave the students an inside view about what these countries were like in terms of its people, schools and way of life. As a result of these sessions the investigator was known to all the students in the classes beforehand, and it was not quite the same as a total stranger conducting the value clarification interview sessions. In many cases teachers reported that students were eager to have the interview about the value issue that they were discussing.

The investigator conducted the interviews on a regular time schedule during the entire time the study was in progress. Two students from each classroom were interviewed on Wednesday following the classroom sessions and two other students were interviewed on Friday following the completion of the discussions of the issue. The investigator spoke with the student initially and endeavoured to put the student completely at ease, familiarizing him with the recording procedures that were used and often involving the student in how this particular tape recorder operated. The time required to put the students at ease naturally varied with the individual, the actual time of the interview was usually within the five minute period. The questions used by the investigator related to the purposes already stated and the wording of questions and responses made by the investigator followed the Chadwick value clarification procedure. In this way twelve students per week were interviewed, four from each class. In the course of the four week period the investigator thus interviewed forty-eight (48) pupils which comprised fifty-four per cent (54%) of the treatment sample.

The investigator then attempted to determine the nature of students' verbal responses in accordance with the purposes of the interview and the questions that were asked. The analysis of these statements is presented in Chapter IV.

3. The Students' Positions With Respect to Each Value Topic as Measured by Pre, Post and Post-Post Forms of a Semantic Differential

Another measure was sought to determine the nature of the students' attitude towards each value topic at different stages during the study. The investigator explored the many attempts to devise generalized attitude scales in this field but found that either the success of the scales was limited or that these were not suitable for students of this age to utilize. The semantic differential technique (S.D.) however, appeared appropriate as a means of measuring the meaning of a concept. (Kerlinger, 1964, p. 572) Furthermore, studies had used the semantic differential with elementary school children (Maltz, 1963; Di Vesta, 1966) It had been used to study human values (Morris, 1955; Morris and Jones, 1955). It had been used by Osgood (1969) as an objective method for measuring meaning of a wide range of concepts, and had been shown to be sufficiently reliable for many research purposes. In addition it has established itself as being flexible, easy to adopt to varying research demands and economical to administer and score.

The decision was made to use the semantic differential technique at three different stages with respect to each value topic or concept. The instrumentation of the semantic differential was made as follows:

1. Pre-test--administered prior to the discussion of the value issue at the start of each week. (Monday) It was also administered in the non-treatment group at the same time.
2. Post-test--administered following completion of discussions of the topic at the end of the week. It was also administered in the non-treatment group at the same time.
3. Post-Post test--administered five weeks following the post-test in the treatment groups.

The investigator was concerned with the utilization of a semantic differential that would be a valid and reliable index of the students' attitudes toward the concept or particular value topic under study. The value scales used by Maltz (1963), Di Vesta (1966) and Osgood (1969) were carefully reviewed. The bi-polar adjectives used by these researchers were examined for their appropriateness and relevance to the value topics under study. The division of bi-polar adjectives into evaluative, potency and activity was noted. (Snider, 1969)

Three factors emerged to be considered. Firstly the bi-polar adjectives chosen would have to be within the range of the students' comprehension, and be appropriate for them. They would have to be relevant to the issues under discussion. Thirdly, they would be loaded on the evaluative factor due to the value clarification procedures that were being used.

While the investigator considered these above factors in order to utilize a valid instrument it appeared essential that a further check should be established to gain some first-hand feedback from a group of students at the age and grade level parallel to those who were participating in the study. Given a series of topics including those that were involved in this study the students were encouraged to list their thoughts and feelings in one or two words about them. Six topics were listed at the top of a page and the students wrote as many brief comments about each one that came to their minds. They were encouraged to utilize "action" words or adjectives and not to be concerned about spelling. After seven to eight minutes these sheets were collected and the adjectives stated formed the basis for establishing appropriate bi-polar adjectives. A summary table showing the adjectives is shown in Appendix F.

While some researchers had used a seven point scale of the semantic differential with a large number of bi-polar adjectives, researchers using this technique with elementary school subjects tended to use a limited number of bi-polar adjectives with a five point scale. (Maltz, 1963; Di Vesta, 1966) Eight to ten bi-polar adjectives were considered to be an appropriate number as this was within the range as suggested by the researchers. Similarly, the investigator decided on using the five point scale. Having taken these steps in the development of a semantic differential it was assumed that a valid instrument had been devised for the specific purposes it was intended.

The students were to make their choice concerning the value topic in relation to a five point scale with eight bi-polar adjective terms. The directions were, that by marking the middle of the scale the pupils indicated a neutral stand in relation to the ends of the scale, and, marking outward from the middle they were taking a positive or negative stand with respect to the particular bi-polar adjective pairs.

VALUE TOPIC

Hitchhiking

Polar Term (positive)						Polar Term (negative)
e.g. Good	___ 1	___ 2	___ 3	___ 4	___ 5	e.g. Bad

The eight bi-polar adjectives comprising the semantic differential used in the study with all four value issues is shown as follows:

TABLE II

BI-POLAR ADJECTIVES COMPRISING THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

1.	GOOD	___	___	___	___	___	BAD
2.	NOISY	___	___	___	___	___	QUIET
3.	DANGEROUS	___	___	___	___	___	SAFE
4.	USEFUL	___	___	___	___	___	USELESS
5.	KIND	___	___	___	___	___	CRUEL
6.	UNFAIR	___	___	___	___	___	FAIR
7.	STRONG	___	___	___	___	___	WEAK
8.	BORING	___	___	___	___	___	ENJOYABLE

For testing purposes the polar terms were arranged as above, some positive and negative terms being on each side of the page. For purposes of statistical treatment, however, the scale for each bi-polar adjective pair was weighted from one to five, starting with one at the negative side each time, the polar adjectives being arranged with the positive terms on the left, the negative on the right.

Osgood (1955) noted the reliability of the differential, particularly in the evaluative dimension as being reasonably high, running in the .80's and .90's in available data. Pearson Product-Movement correlations were computed on scores for the control group for each bi-polar adjective on each value topic. This group was administered the differential at the beginning of the week but no treatment effect took place. It was administered again at the end of the week. Reliability of the differential could be said to range from average to high. The following table shows the correlation coefficients on the scores for each value issue for this group.

A more complete table of correlations coefficients among variables on four value topics for control and treatment groups is provided in Appendix G.

The semantic differential technique employed endeavoured to determine the nature of the students' positions on each value topic at three times during the study. The investigator wished to determine if the students' positions would change from one time to another and if there would be any noticeable position changes when different strategies were used. The teacher was not to influence

TABLE III

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS AMONG VARIABLES ON FOUR VALUE TOPICS FOR THE CONTROL GROUP. (N = 30)

VARIABLE	VALUE TOPIC I	 II	 III	 IV
1. Good-Bad	.707	.778	.694	.686
2. Quiet-Noisy	.755	.430	.226	.577
3. Safe-Dangerous	.748	.738	.706	.828
4. Useful-Useless	.843	.656	.786	.934
5. Kind-Cruel	.778	.763	.682	.908
6. Fair-Unfair	.514	.500	.534	.752
7. Strong-Weak	.492	.708	.625	.939
8. Enjoyable-Boring	.283	.545	.654	.678

the students one way or another in the clarification of each value topic. The materials utilized by the students were judged to present a variety of facts and viewpoints in order to assist in the clarification.

The investigator employed the use of mean and standard deviation scores to show treatment group positions on the semantic differential. A profile was constructed to show more clearly the nature of the positions. Because it was expected that some shift in positions would take place in treatment groups that would not be accounted for by the use of these statistical techniques, a change score technique was employed to show the nature and degree of shift on each bi-polar adjective pair for the four value topics. These results are also reported in Chapter IV.

4. Information Gained From Questionnaires Completed by Students Following Completion of the Main Study

Being an exploratory study the investigator endeavored to elicit as much information as possible concerning the student reactions to the program. Besides the previous methods as described, additional information was sought from the students by means of a questionnaire administered following completion of discussions of the fourth value topic.

The purposes of the questionnaire were as follows:

1. to determine whether the students enjoyed the program in general.

2. to determine whether the students thought they had learned some useful ideas.
3. to determine the interest level of the students related to the particular topics that were selected.
4. to determine whether the strategy used was related to the expression of the students' "feelings".
5. to determine whether the "expression of feelings" helped students to understand the topics.
6. to determine whether changes in student ideas were in any way related to the strategies that were used.
7. to ascertain what levels of strategies used were most enjoyed by students.

The questionnaire was designed with these purposes in mind. Students were encouraged to express themselves freely on the questionnaire with the idea that their information would be helpful in the planning of other social studies units of this nature. The administration and completion of the questionnaire took place in about ten (10) minutes of class time. The results of the questionnaire are reported in Chapter IV and a sample questionnaire is included in Appendix H.

5. Information Gained by Classroom Observation, and Reactions From Teachers who Participated in the Study

One of the concerns of the investigator was the implementation of the three strategies. In order to ensure that the teachers would be able to implement the strategies the teachers who participated in the study were actively involved in the pilot study, which occupied the same period of time as the main study. The teachers were able to observe at first hand the implementation of the strategies and the changes and refinements that were made involved them. In addition the teachers were instrumental in making some changes and refinements to the materials that were utilized in the study. Also during the course of the actual study the investigator was available to the teachers for consultation.

As a check to ensure implementation of the strategies the investigator arranged to tape record some of the class sessions on certain days. The students knew this was being done, and this did not appear to hinder the classroom discussions. All students were familiar with the equipment and had used it both individually and in group sessions in the team-teaching areas.

The investigator transcribed these sessions and a check was made on the questions the teachers employed and the amount of time that was alloted to student and teacher talk. Analysis of this information is briefly described in Chapter IV. The transcribed sessions relating to teacher talk are outlined in Appendix C.

A summary of teacher comments is also outlined in Chapter IV.

VI. Data Analysis

This was basically an exploratory study, the main period of the study being undertaken during the four week period in the month of March, 1972.

Most of the data analysis was accomplished by the investigator. Data from the semantic differential were recorded on data punching forms and random checks and rechecks of the tests were carried out.

The semantic differential data were analyzed by the University of Alberta computer. Programs (Desto #2) supplied and documented by the Division of Educational Research of the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta were used. Other parts of the analysis were done by the investigator with the assistance of other personnel.

This study was concerned with the rationale, components and design of a teaching-learning strategy which would assist students in the clarification of value issues. Being exploratory in nature a variety of outcomes were examined during the course of the entire study. In addition the pilot study was an integral part of the study. The rationale for the study has been outlined in Chapter II. An explanation of the design has been outlined in this chapter. Chapter IV reports the observations and findings.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF THE RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

In this chapter observations and findings are presented. A restatement of the features and assumptions of the study is made. Findings are reported from the analysis of the childrens' written assertions, and from the analysis of the students' verbal responses. Analysis of semantic differential data is provided. Other information in the form of student and teacher reactions is also described in this chapter.

I. Restatement of Purposes and Assumptions

This study attempted to design a teaching learning strategy that would assist learners in clarifying value issues in the classroom. The rationale for the study was outlined in Chapter II. The identification of components of a teaching learning strategy is intended on the basis of analysis of data as outlined in the chapter. The determination of the effectiveness of the strategies employed is also intended on the basis of a close examination of the observations and findings as outlined in this chapter.

One of the assumptions developed in the rationale for the study was the implementation of both cognitive skills and affective concerns assisting students to make relevant choices. A program of value-education dealing with value issues pertinent to the needs and interests of students was deemed necessary. The importance of a cognitive base to a teaching learning strategy, with the expression and relationship of affective concerns was supported in the rationale.

The exploratory study had three main purposes; to establish a rationale for the study, to identify components of a teaching learning strategy from the observations and findings as presented in this chapter based on the rationale, and determine the relative effectiveness of the strategies utilized, realising the limitations inherent in an exploratory study.

The findings and observations are presented with these purposes in mind.

II. Findings from the Evaluation of Students' Written Responses to Value Issues

In Chapter III the procedure is explained whereby students reacted daily to the value topic under discussion in the form of making written statements which indicated their personal thoughts on the discussion.

The number of expressed statements are summarized according to classroom and issue. (Table IV)

TABLE IV

NUMBER OF EXPRESSED WRITTEN ASSERTIONS BY VALUE ISSUE AND CLASS

ISSUE	CLASSROOM			TOTALS
	Classroom I	Classroom II	Classroom III	
I	637	449	324	1410
II	602	282	267	1151
III	584	322	331	1237
IV	386	195	181	762
TOTALS	2209	1248	1103	4560

According to the preceding table Value Issue I recorded the highest number of statements. Value Issue IV recorded the lowest number, but this issue was conducted over four (4) days instead of five (5) days for the other three issues. Students in classroom I recorded the greatest number of assertions, almost combining the totals of the other two classrooms. It is interesting to note that the mean I.Q. scores on the Lorge-Thorndike Form A Non Verbal Test as reported in the student cumulative cards was 125 for classroom I (range 101-149) compared to 111 for classroom II (range 94-117), and 110 for classroom III (range 75-139). This raises several questions. Could it be that higher I.Q. students are more receptive to this kind of social studies program? Will this student group show differences in the quality of written statements compared to those of other student groups? Are students of higher intelligence more easily motivated in dealing with value issue topics in the classroom setting? The investigator hoped to suggest some possible solutions to these and other questions as a result of analysis of data.

The development of the procedure by which students' assertions were coded is described in Chapter III. In the analysis of student statements or assertions the framework that was established was utilized. The investigator considered that the data could be analyzed in three different ways: by strategy, by issue and by teacher. From the rationale as outlined in Chapter II the investigator expected that outcomes resulting from the utilization of the cognitive-affective strategy would be superior in some ways to outcomes resulting from the utilization of the other two strategies. For example, a high percentage of supported preference assertions and identification assertions might be expected as outcomes resulting from the successful implementation of this strategy. By examining the data in the two other ways the effects of the particular issue under discussion, and the influence of the particular teacher could be partially accounted for.

Three tables are presented to show the number and percentage of students' written assertions according to the strategy that was employed by the teacher. In these tables no comparisons were intended. Because all three teachers and all four issues were presented in each table the data presented within each was displayed to indicate how the totals were reached. (See Appendix J for these tables)

Tables based on the summary totals and percentages are provided to raise further questions concerning the outcomes of the three strategies employed. (Tables V and VI) The descriptive table was based on the percentage of assertions indicated within each of seven divisions of the categorization system compared to the total number of assertions. For example, "high in general" for the open strategy indicates that this strategy had the highest percentage of assertions in this category in relation to the other two strategies.

Following examination of the three tables and the descriptive summary table it might be concluded that the cognitive affective strategy is somewhat superior to the other two. Higher percentages of supported valuative assertions appear to be indicated. The higher percentages of conditional assertions might appear to indicate a higher level of cognitive thought processes. However, these indications are by no means clear.

The Open strategy recorded the higher percentages in general assertions (11.1%) compared to the cognitive (8.0%) and cognitive-affective (9.7%) in the totals. However, with respect to the particular issue under discussion this did not hold true, and nor did it with respect to the different teachers involved. The cognitive strategy had a higher overall percentage of particular assertions (5.2%) compared to the open strategy (4.8%) and the cognitive-affective (2.7%). However, once again this did not hold

TABLE V

SUMMARY TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO STRATEGY

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
Cognitive	68 5.2%	104 8.0%	59 4.5%	160 12.3%	53 4.1%	718 55.2%	125 9.6%	13 1.0%	1300	156 12.0%
Cognitive-Affective	34 2.7%	121 9.7%	99 7.9%	245 19.6%	97 7.8%	397 31.8%	243 19.4%	14 1.1%	1250	395 31.6%
Open	60 4.8%	139 11.1%	57 4.6%	229 18.3%	97 7.8%	438 35.1%	208 16.7%	20 1.6%	1248	270 21.6%

TABLE VI

DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF HIGH AND LOW ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO STRATEGY

	HIGH	LOW
Open	General Supported Response	
Cognitive	Particular Preference	General Conditional Response Supported Response Supported Preference Identification
Cognitive-Affective	Conditional Response Supported Response Supported Preference Identification	Particular Preference

true with respect to each issue and each teacher. In the case of high percentage of assertions in the preference category for the cognitive strategy (55.2%) the distinction is somewhat clearer. For the open strategy the preference category was lower (35.1%) and for the cognitive-affective strategy lower still (31.8%). For each issue taken the cognitive strategy produced the higher percentage of assertions in the preference category, but this did not hold true for each teacher using the cognitive strategy. However, it might appear that the cognitive strategy leads students towards this kind of statement. The question that is generated is as follows: Will the use of a cognitive strategy result in student assertions that fall into the two categories of particular and preference more consistently than when the two other strategies are used? If this is so the cognitive strategy may not be conducive to developing supported valuative statements.

In the case of the cognitive affective strategy conditional assertions had a higher percentage (7.9%) than with the cognitive (4.5%) and open (4.6%) strategies. However, once again this did not hold true for the three issues and with the three teachers. Response assertions have a slightly higher percentage with cognitive affective strategy (19.6%) in relation to the cognitive (12.3%) and open (18.3%) strategies. Once again this was not consistent for each issue and for each teacher. Supported response assertions were similarly high in the cognitive-affective strategy but this was not consistent for each issue and for each teacher. In the category of supported preference the cognitive affective strategy had the overall high percentage (19.4%) in relation to the cognitive (9.6%) and open (16.7%) strategies. This again was not consistent for each issue and for each teacher. It is suggested that the teacher variable and the particular value issue are prime determiners in the types of assertions that students make. Considering this factor, perhaps some weight can be put on the overall percentages as stated. The question that is generated is as follows: Will the use of a cognitive-affective strategy result in students' assertions that fall into categories of conditional, response, supported response and supported preference more consistently than when the two other strategies are used?

A higher percentage of identification statements were recorded with the use of the cognitive affective strategy (31.6%) in relation to the cognitive strategy (12.0%) and the open strategy (21.6%). For each issue taken the cognitive-affective was higher in identification statements. Similarly each teacher using this strategy resulted in a higher percentage of these statements. As a result it could be suggested that the utilization of the full strategy might be more conducive to students showing sympathy and concern for the welfare of others, and the environment. The question that is generated is as follows: Will the use of a cognitive affective strategy result in students' assertions that are considered as "identification" more consistently than when the two other strategies are used?

One might perhaps have expected a higher over-all percentage of factual assertions over valuative assertion in using the cognitive strategy. However, this did not seem to occur. The ratio of factual to valuative assertions with the open and cognitive-affective strategies was approximately 1:4, but with the cognitive strategy was approximately 2:9 (1:4.5). This may suggest that when dealing with topics of this nature the eliciting of factual type assertions may not necessarily occur to a higher degree when using a basically cognitive approach.

Three tables are now presented to show the number and percentage of students' written assertions on the basis of the particular value issue used. Once again in these tables no direct comparisons are intended. In these three tables the first three issues are summarized showing the breakdown within each value issue. (See Appendix K for these tables)

Tables based on the summary totals and percentages are provided to raise further questions concerning the outcomes of the students' written assertions from the first three value issues. (Tables VII and VIII)

The descriptive table was again based on the percentage of assertions indicated within each of the seven divisions of the categorization system compared to the total number of assertions. For example "high in general" for Issue I indicated that this Value issue had the high percentage of assertions in this category in relation to issues II and III.

Following examination of the three tables and the descriptive summary table it might be concluded that the students identified more strongly with value issue II. It might also be concluded that the

TABLE VII

SUMMARY TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO VALUE ISSUE

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
Value Issue I	50 3.5%	208 14.8%	91 6.5%	276 19.6%	75 5.3%	562 39.9%	129 9.1%	19 1.3%	1410	259 18.4%
Value Issue II	76 6.6%	102 8.9%	80 6.9%	215 18.7%	120 10.4%	309 26.8%	238 20.7%	11 1.0%	1151	280 24.3%
Value Issue III	36 2.9%	54 4.4%	44 3.6%	143 11.5%	52 4.2%	682 55.1%	209 16.9%	17 1.4%	1237	282 22.8%

TABLE VIII

DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF HIGH AND LOW ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO VALUE ISSUE

	HIGH	LOW
Issue I	General Response	Supported Preference Identification
Issue II	Particular Conditional Supported Response Supported Preference Identification	Preference
Issue III	Preference	Particular General Response Supported Response Conditional

students generally thought more deeply about this value issue evidenced by the higher percentage in the categories of supported response and supported preference. However, these indications are by no means clear in all instances.

Value Issue I recorded the higher percentage in general assertions (14.8%) in relation to Value Issue II (8.9%) and Value Issue III (4.4%) in the totals. With respect to the particular strategy that was utilized Value Issue I still had the higher percentage of general assertions in relation to the other two issues. With respect to the particular teacher Value Issue I still had the higher percentage of assertions in relation to the other two issues. This might lead one to suggest that the nature of the value issue itself is a strong determiner in indicating the nature of the students' reactions and written assertions. It appears that this issue may have had a direct appeal to the students' interests and level of involvement because of its more "concrete" nature, and one in which they were more closely aware of from the point of personal contact and experience. The question that is generated is as follows: Will the nature of the value issue presented determine the distribution of written assertions by students, rather than the kind of strategy the teacher uses?

In Issue I the totals for the response category were slightly higher (19.5%) than in Issue II (18.7%) and Issue III (11.5%). However, this did not hold true for all strategies and all teachers.

In Issue II a higher percentage of assertions occurred under factual assertions, particular (6.6%) and conditional (6.9%), and in valuative categories, supported response (10.4%) and supported preference (20.7%) in relation to the other two issues. In the case of particular (6.6%) assertions the percentage recorded in Issue II was higher irrespective of the strategy used. However, this did not hold true with respect to the teacher. In the case of conditional assertions (5.15%) this higher percentage did not hold true when each strategy and teacher were considered. This may suggest that either strategy or teacher or both had some influence. With respect to supported response Issue II had the higher percentage of assertions in this category (10.4%) in relation to Issue I (5.3%)and Issue III (4.2%). In this case the percentage of supported response was higher in Issue II in relation to other issues irrespective of the strategy used. However, once again this did not hold true with respect to the teachers. Issue II also had the higher percentage of assertions in the supported preference category (20.7%) in relation to Issue I (9.2%) and Issue III (16.9%). However, in this case this did not hold true with the different strategies and teachers. In identification assertions Issue II recorded a slightly higher overall percentage (24.3%) in relation to Issue I (18.4%) and Issue III (22.8%) Once again this did not hold true with the different strategies and teachers.

In Issue III a higher percentage of assertion occurred in the preference category (55.1%) in relation to Issue I (39.8%) and Issue II (26.9%). In this case the percentage of preferences was higher in Issue III in relation to the other issues irrespective of the strategy used. However, this did not hold true with respect to the teachers. This may suggest once again that the nature of the value issue is a strong determiner in indicating the nature of students' written assertions. It may also suggest that the teacher can be influential in developing supported valuative assertions.

In Value Issues I and II the overall ratios of factual assertions to valuative assertions was 1:3 and 1:3.5 respectively. In the case of Value Issue III the ratio was almost 1:9. This might suggest that value issues that are closely related to the experiences of the students themselves elicit a wider variety of students' reactions and written assertions within the categories of factual and valuative assertions. It might be that when the students' feelings and emotions are aroused to a higher degree that a high percentage of preference assertions result. This appears to be indicated by these results.

Three tables are now presented to show the number and percentage of students' written assertions on the basis of the particular teacher. Once again no direct comparisons are intended. In these three tables the assertions are summarized with respect to each teacher. (see Appendix L for these tables)

Tables based on the summary totals and percentages were provided to raise further questions concerning the outcomes of the students' written assertions with respect to each of the three teachers involved in the main study. (Tables IX and X) The descriptive table was again based on the percentage of assertions indicated within each of the seven divisions of the categorization system compared to the total number of assertions. For example

TABLE IX

SUMMARY TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO TEACHER

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
Teacher A	54 5.8%	116 12.6%	43 4.7%	136 14.8%	65 7.0%	353 38.3%	121 13.1%	34 3.7%	922	215 23.3%
Teacher B	42 4.0%	99 9.4%	81 7.7%	61 5.8%	68 6.5%	461 43.8%	232 22.0%	9 .8%	1053	270 25.6%
Teacher C	66 3.6%	149 8.2%	91 5.0%	437 24.0%	114 6.3%	739 40.5%	223 12.2%	4 .2%	1823	336 18.4%

TABLE X

DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF HIGH AND LOW ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO TEACHER

	HIGH	LOW
Teacher A	Particular General Supported Response	Conditional Preference
Teacher B	Conditional Preference Supported Preference Identification	Response
Teacher C	Response	Particular General Supported Response Supported Preference Identification

"high in particular" for Teacher A indicated that this teacher had the high percentage of written assertions in this category in relation to Teachers B and C.

Following examination of the three tables and the descriptive summary table it might be concluded that the students with Teacer B identified more strongly with the value issues under clarification. A high overall percentage of conditional and supported preference statements might appear to indicate a higher level of cognitive thought processing and justification for one's course of action. However, these indications are not clear.

Teacher A recorded the higher percentage of particular assertions (5.8%) in relation to Teacher B (4.0%) and Teacher C (3.6%) in the overall totals. However, with respect to each value issue and each strategy this did not hold true in all cases. Teacher A also recorded the higher overall percentage of general assertions (12.6%) in relation to Teacher B (9.4%) and Teacher C (8.2%). Again this did not hold true with respect to each strategy and each value issue. Teacher A also recorded a slightly higher overall percentage in the supported response category (7.0%) in relation to Teacher B (6.5%) and Teacher C (6.3%). This did not hold true with each strategy and value issue.

Teacher B recorded the high percentage of conditional assertions (7.7%) in relation to Teacher A (4.7%) and Teacher C (5.0%) in the overall totals. In this case the percentage of recorded assertions in the conditional category was high irrespective of the strategy used, but it did not hold true with each value issue.

Teacher B had a slightly higher overall percentage of assertions in the preference category (43.8%) in relation to Teacher A (38.3%) and Teacher C (40.5%). This again did not hold true with respect to strategy and value issue. In the supported preference category Teacher B had the higher percentage (22.0%) in relation to Teacher A (13.1%) and Teacher C (12.2%). In this case the percentage of supported preference remained high irrespective of the strategy that was used or the issue that was being clarified. This might lead one to suggest that the personality and manner of the teacher is a strong determiner in the nature of the students' reactions and written assertions. It would appear that this teacher perhaps encouraged her students more into a value clarification procedure with emphasis on seeing the justification for preferences that had been made. The importance of classroom climate and rapport has already been stressed in the rationale in Chapter II and in Chapter III. The question that is generated is as follows: Do classroom climate and teacher-pupil relationships act as major determiners in the nature of the students' reactions and written assertions when clarifying a value issue?

Teacher B also had a slightly higher overall percentage of responses in the identification category (25.6%) in relation to teacher A (23.3%) and Teacher C (18.4%). However, this did not hold true with respect to strategy or the value issue.

Teacher C recorded a high percentage of response assertions (24.0%) in relation to Teacher A (14.8%) and Teacher B (5.8%) in the overall totals. The percentage of response assertions remained high irrespective of the strategy that was used or the issue that was being clarified. This might lead one to consider the influence of the teacher. It might also be considered from the composition of the student group. Teacher C was not the home room teacher with this class, whereas Teacher B taught most of the subjects with her class. Also the classroom with Teacher C was composed of students who were grouped together on the basis of I.Q. and achievement. Several questions present themselves. To what extent is the teacher variable related to the students' expression of written assertions? To what extent is the I.Q. variable related? Do students of higher I.Q. ability tend to express their written assertions in the form of response statements rather than preference statements?

A fourth value issue was clarified in the three classrooms but each teacher used the cognitive-affective strategy. The results of these assertions are presented separately in Table XI.

Two findings appear to emerge from this table. There does not appear to be wide discrepancies in percentage of assertions within valuative assertions considering the three teachers' results. The ratio of response to supported response and preference to supported preference is approximately 2:1 across all teachers. In the factual assertions general assertions are predominant with the teachers. One would expect teacher variability and the nature of the student groups themselves to result in some differences in overall results between classes. Two questions are raised. Will the use of the cognitive-affective strategy in the clarification of value issues encourage students to justify the preferences that

TABLE XI

SUMMARY TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS FOR VALUE ISSUE IV BY TREATMENT GROUPS USING THE COGNITIVE-AFFECTIVE STRATEGY

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
Treatment Group I		18 9.9%	7 3.9%	36 19.9%	19 10.5%	68 37.6%	32 17.7%	1 .5%	181	45 24.9%
Treatment Group II	21 10.8%	24 12.3%	5 2.6%	22 11.2%	9 4.6%	66 33.9%	44 22.6%	4 2%	195	42 21.6%
Treatment Group III	13 3.3%	49 12.7%	6 1.5%	76 19.7%	27 7%	147 38.2%	68 17.6%		386	99 25.7%

they make consistently? Will the use of this strategy contribute towards the making of general assertions? If it could be substantiated that this was the case the value of this strategy would be enhanced considerably.

Summary

One of the intentions of this exploratory study was to determine the nature of children's written assertions with respect to a number of value issues when teachers were using cognitive, cognitive-affective and open strategies. The investigator established a categorization system in order that the students' written assertions could be coded into categories that appeared both theoretically and practically feasible. Having established this system and coded the assertions with the assistance of judges, the investigator summarized the findings into a number of tables that were subsequently examined. It appeared that the categorization system as developed by the investigator for the coding of students' written assertions was appropriate.

Students' assertions were coded into all categories. Variations were noted with respect to strategy, value issue and teacher. Some trends were noted and questions raised upon a closer examination of the groups of tables and descriptive summary tables. These are noted as follows:

1. In using the cognitive strategy there was a trend for a high percentage of assertions to fall into the preference category.

2. In the open strategy no trends were apparent.
3. With the cognitive-affective strategy, conditional, response and supported response assertions appeared high overall but this did not hold true when teachers and value issues themselves were considered.
4. In identification statements the cognitive-affective strategy gained the higher percentage irrespective of value issue and teacher.
5. The nature of the issue itself was suggested to be a determinent. This seemed apparent from the categorization of assertions. General assertions ranked high in Issue I. In Issue II particular assertions and supported responses tended to rank high. In Issue III preference assertions tended to rank high.
6. There appeared a tendency for Teacher B to rank high in conditional assertions. Teacher B ranked high in supported preference overall irrespective of strategy and value issue. Teacher C ranked high in response overall irrespective of strategy or value issue. The teacher variable and classroom climate established were suggested as important variables.
7. In the fourth value issue the three teachers used the cognitive-affective strategy. There appeared an approximately 2 to 1 ratio of response to supported response and preference to supported preference assertions, and a relatively uniform percentage of general assertions made.

The nature of the issue and the teacher variable were important factors to be considered. While overall figures indicated the cognitive-affective strategy having a degree of superiority in categories of conditional, response, supported response, and supported preference and identification this could not be substantiated. Nevertheless, the questions that have been generated indicate the scope for further research in this area. When all classes clarified the fourth issue with the cognitive-affective strategy the categories of general, response, supported response, preference, supported preference and identification appeared to be consistently favoured. This would appear to indicate possible strengths of teachers using this strategy. Teachers might well utilize questions that correspond to these categories. However, this could well be a major topic for research in itself.

III. Findings from Students' Verbal Responses as Recorded in Interviews Conducted by the Observer

In Chapter III the procedure was explained whereby some verbal feedback concerning the value clarification procedures was obtained. The purposes of the interviews were established, and the questions that were asked related to these purposes. The analysis of the students' verbal responses is presented in this section. A summary of the verbal responses is presented in Appendix M.

The investigator examined the students' verbal responses in relation to the purposes and the questions that were asked.

The students were asked to state their initial feelings towards each topic, and to what extent their viewpoints had changed. They were asked about their feelings on this kind of work in the social studies, which was followed up by further questions endeavouring to elicit more information concerning elements or components of the processes that were being used. Thus while no precise information was gained by means of the interview further feedback was obtained of a subjective nature which appeared to support some components and aspects of the processes that were used.

Findings from students' verbal responses are described according to the particular value issue under clarification. The investigator endeavoured to summarize the findings using some examples of students' verbal responses from the different classrooms. For each value issue these findings are related to the three purposes initially stated. These are: 1. Feelings about the topic and determination of any change in viewpoint.
2. General reactions to the program and processes used.
3. Specific reactions to the program and procedures.

Issue I

Twelve students were interviewed concerning the Value Topic "Snowmobiles" and the Value Issue, "To what extent should the use of snowmobiles be controlled?" Because the information and viewpoints that were used in the clarification of the value issue presented basic factual information and viewpoints that were pro and con concerning the use of snowmobiles it was expected that students might be influenced to change their viewpoints one way or the other. This seemed to be the case with the twelve students who were interviewed by the investigator on this topic. Three factors appeared to influence students in modifying their viewpoints; namely, facts, particular viewpoints, and the expressed viewpoints of students in the class during the course of the discussion.

From the interviews that were conducted during this first week it appeared that both information and written and spoken viewpoints influenced students' thinking and valuing. Rule enforcement and more stringent laws were considered important. Interest appeared high.

Issue II

Twelve different students were similarly interviewed towards the end of the second week. The Value Topic was "Hitchhiking", and the Value Issue, "Should hitchhiking be restricted?" The same procedure was followed as for Issue I. The same factors appeared to influence the students in their value clarification; facts, particular viewpoints, and the expressed ideas of pupils in the class.

The general reaction of the students to the program itself was favourable and specific reactions appeared to stress the importance of the written viewpoints, student-student interaction, sharing feelings and the general discussion itself. These observations are illustrated in Appendix M.

It appeared from the twelve interviews that were conducted during the second week that a cognitive basis in the form of precise information in addition to the affective sharing of thoughts and ideas were favoured by the students in their value clarification.

Issue III

Twelve different students were similarly interviewed towards the end of the third week. The Value Topic was "Hunting Big Game Animals", and the Value Issue, "Should more conservation be practised and foreign hunters kept out?" The same procedures were followed.

The general reaction of the students to the program in this third issue still appeared very positive. More specific reactions stressed the importance of working together as a class on a topic, mutual sharing of thoughts and feelings, and utilizing information, facts and viewpoints on the value topic. These observations are indicated in the specified student reactions.

It appeared from the twelve interviews that were conducted during the third week that the affective sharing of ideas was an important motivator.

Issue IV

Twelve different students were similarly interviewed towards the end of the fourth week. The Value Topic was "Capital Punishment" and the Value Issue, "Should capital punishment be brought back in December 1972?" The same procedures were followed as for the previous issues.

It appeared with most of the students that were interviewed that this topic was beyond the realm of the students' previous experiences. The students initially appeared to approach the topic and the value issue with little previous knowledge or committment. It appeared that once specific facts and viewpoints were examined the students were able to form ideas and substantiate them to some degree.

During this fourth week student reactions to the program still appeared positive. Specific reactions appeared to centre around the expression and sharing of ideas together with using and seeking out of particular information. These observations are illustrated in the specified students' reactions.

In this issue students' interest appeared to be generated from the mutual sharing of ideas. The information facts and written viewpoints appeared to provide the cognitive basis for students to develop thoughts and ideas of their own.

The investigator attempted to indicate some of the recurring responses that were expressed by students in the interviews. He attempted to determine from the students' feelings about the topics and value issues indications of what was influencing their thinking and valuing. The general reactions of the students were sought together with "specifics" to suggest components of a value clarification process.

With these purposes in mind the following suggestions are made:

1. A cognitive base in the form of relevant information, pertinent facts and figures appears to be important for value clarification.
2. It would appear that students should be able to utilize this information with the teacher as a guide to explain meanings that were not clear. The teacher, therefore, would not tell the students what responses to make but rather would assist them to clarify for themselves the information, its relevance and its consequences.
3. An affective sharing of ideas appears to be a vital component of the program's success. This would seem to suggest that affective type questions have an integral role in a value clarification strategy.
4. A classroom climate conducive to mutual sharing and discussion of ideas would also appear necessary for value clarification to be successful.
5. It appeared that the interest level was high throughout. The value clarifying discussion method appears to motivate students sufficiently to come to grips with the specific topics and issues.

IV. Findings from the Evaluation of Students' Positions with Respect to Value Topics as Measured by Pre, Post and Post-Post Forms of a Semantic Differential

In Chapter III the procedure was outlined in which students responded to each value topic by means of pre, post and post-post forms of a semantic differential.

These findings are reported by examining the positions of students on each value topic and issue that was clarified. Comparisons between classes are not intended. Mean scores, standard deviation scores and profiles were used to portray the findings. A change score technique was employed also to show the nature and degree of shift on each bi-polar adjective pair for each value topic.

Tables of mean and standard deviation scores are summarized for each class and topic and are presented in Appendix N. The profiles which were derived from the mean scores are presented in this section. They depict class positions for each value topic on Pre, Post and Post-Post tests of the semantic differential. The results of the change score technique are presented as difference scores from pre to post, post to post-post and pre to post-post tests of the semantic differential. These are also presented in this section.

Profiles of Positions on Pre, Post and Post-Post Tests for Value Topic I

Because the value clarification procedures did not attempt to directly influence the students in any particular direction it was not really expected that students' positions would swing to one side from one point of time to another. In treatment class I (cognitive-affective strategy) mean scores on pre-post and post-post tests showed slight shifts on almost all bi-polar adjective pairs. (Figure I) Standard deviation scores as a measure of variability appeared to show small change. In treatment class II (open strategy) mean scores showed a slight shift to the negative adjectives in most instances which was further increased or decreased slightly in the post-post test scores. (Figure II) In treatment class III (cognitive strategy) mean scores also showed a slight shift to the negative side in most instances, with a further slight shift in this direction in most instances as shown in post-post results. (Figure III) In the non-treatment class pre and post mean scores were closely placed. (Figure IV)

Pre to Post; Post to Post-Post and Pre to Post-Post Difference Scores for Value Topic I

Because it was expected that changes would take place in treatment classes that would not be accounted for by the use of the above described statistical techniques a change score technique was employed to show the nature and degree of shift on each bi-polar adjective pair for the four value topics. The intent was to show the nature of shift on each bi-polar adjective pair. The differences between each individual's pre and post scores, post and

PROFILE

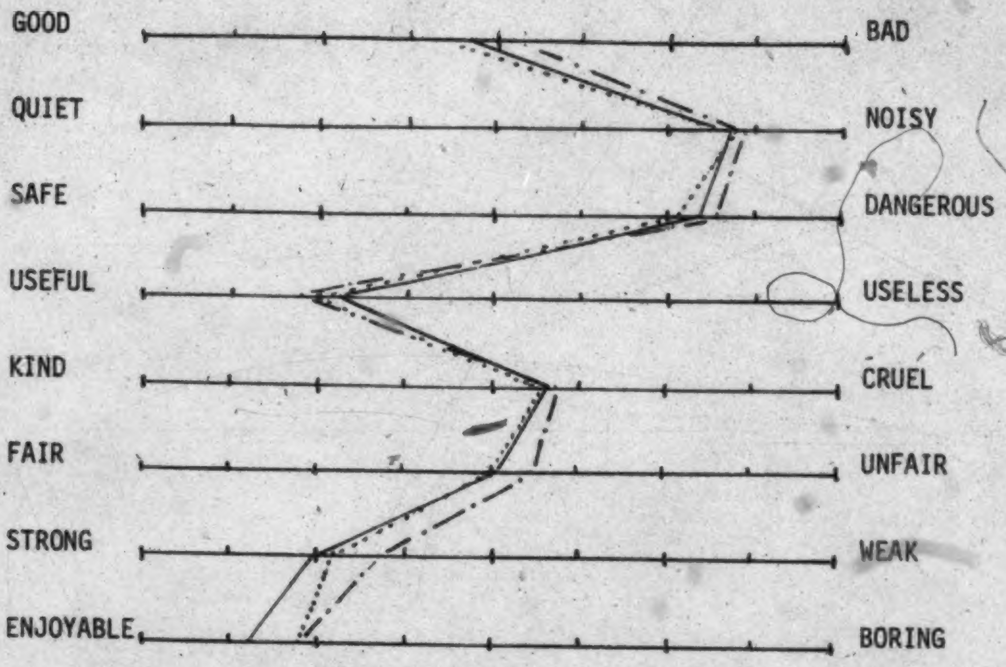

Figure I

Treatment Class I (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Snowmobiles on Pre,

Post, and Post-Post Tests

PROFILE

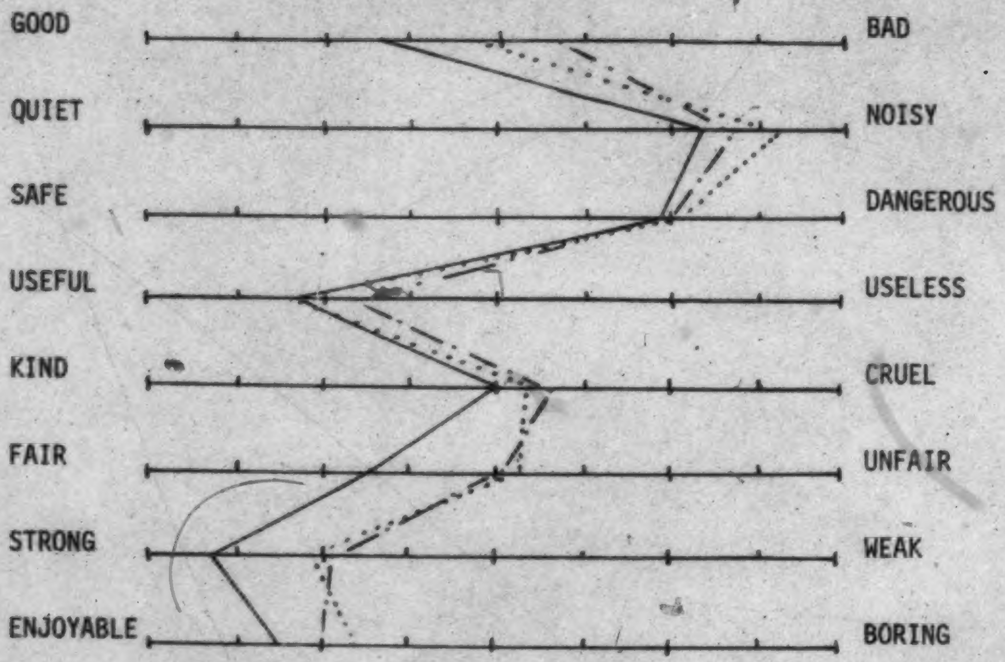

Figure II

Treatment Class II (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Snowmobiles on Pre,

Post and Post-Post Tests

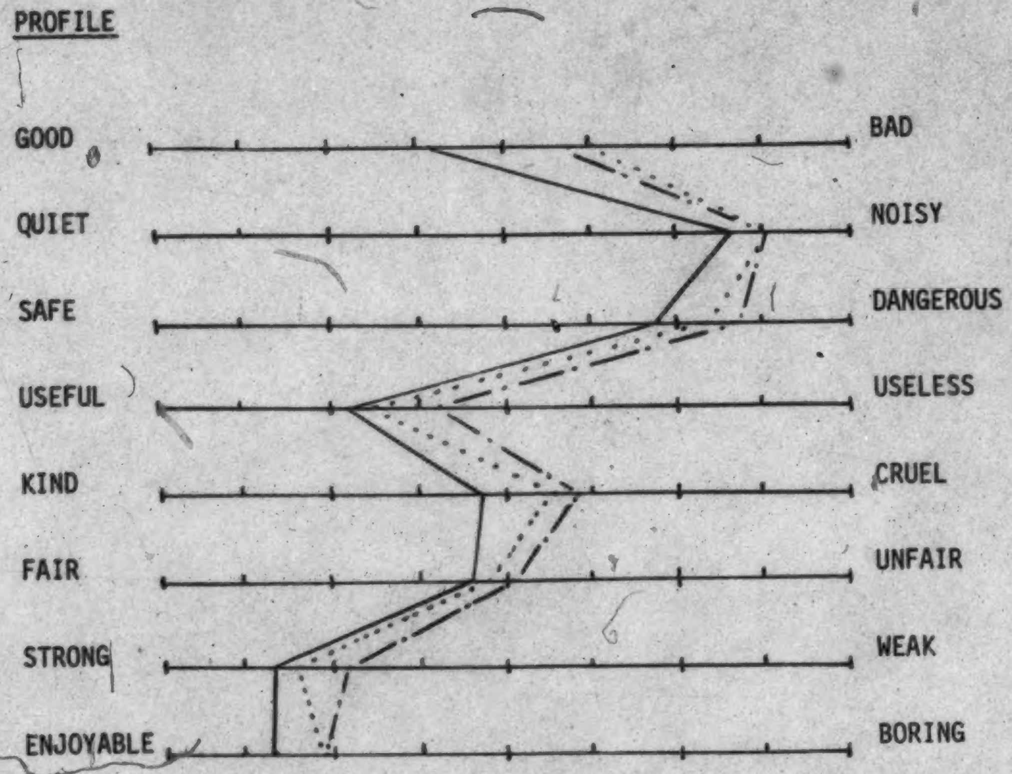

Figure III

Treatment Class III (N = 29)

Profile of the Positions on Snowmobiles on Pre,

Post and Post-Post Tests

PROFILE

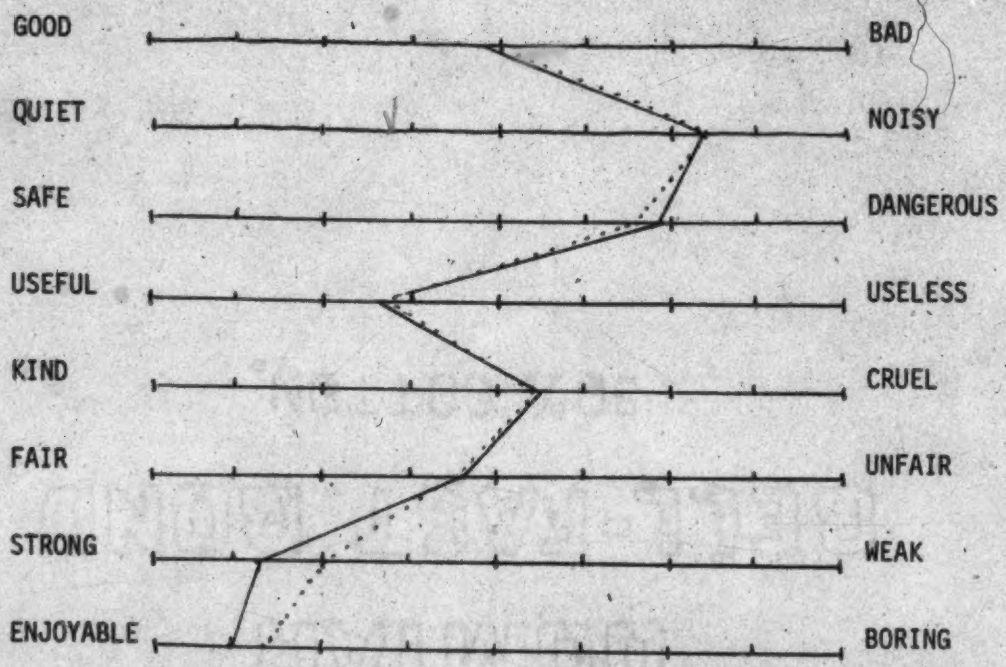

Figure IV

Non-Treatment Class (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Snowmobiles on

Pre and Post Tests

post-post scores and pre and post-post scores were calculated for each value topic. These results are shown for value topic I with the non-treatment class. (Table XII)

Correlation coefficients were used to check on the validity and reliability of the semantic differential. This was explained in Chapter II. The pre to post difference scores act as a further check. On the five point semantic differential scale there were twelve changes more than one point out of the possible of two hundred and forty (240). While no direct comparisons are intended, difference scores could be used to indicate possible shifts in positions towards the value topic over different time periods. Furthermore, questions could be raised resulting from the findings of difference scores. With this in mind the tables are presented.

It would appear that Class III, using a cognitive strategy, showed shifts on the evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs of good-bad and useful-useless if the non-treatment group is any criterion. (Table XIII) Slightly higher overall shifts are noted with respect to the pre to post-post results and pre to post results in comparison with post to post-post results. Other bi-polar adjective pairs of quiet-noisy and strong-weak showed little shift if the non-treatment groups is any criterion. On the five-point semantic differential scale there were forty-nine changes of more than one point in pre to post differences, which suggests changes from original positions.

It would appear that Class II, using an open strategy, showed somewhat greater shifts on the evaluative bi-polar adjective

TABLE XII

PRE TO POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR NON-TREATMENT CLASS ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "SNOWMOBILES" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	1^{12}, 2^{2}	16
Quiet-Noisy	1^{11}	11
Safe-Dangerous	1^{9}, 2^{2}	13
Useful-Useless	1^{9}, 2^{1}	11
Kind-Cruel	1^{11}	11
Fair-Unfair	1^{11}, 2^{1}, 3^{2}	19
Strong-Weak	1^{12}, 2^{1}, 4^{1}	18
Enjoyable-Boring	1^{6}, 2^{1}, 4^{1}	12
Total		111

TABLE XIII

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASS III FOR THE VALUE TOPIC, "SNOWMOBILES" (N = 29)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	$1^7, 2^3, 3^4, 4^1$	29	$1^9, 2^5, 4^1$	23	$1^{11}, 2^3, 3^3, 4^3$	36
Quiet-Noisy	$1^9, 2^1, 4^1$	15	$1^3, 2^1$	5	$1^6, 2^1, 4^1$	12
Safe-Dangerous	$1^8, 2^6, 3^1, 4^1$	27	$1^5, 2^3, 4^1$	15	$1^8, 2^6$	20
Useful-Useless	$1^7, 2^6, 4^1$	23	$1^9, 2^5, 3^1$	22	$1^8, 2^4, 3^1, 4^3$	31
Kind-Cruel	$1^6, 2^6, 3^1, 4^1$	25	$1^4, 2^7$	18	$1^8, 2^7, 3^1$	25
Fair-Unfair	$1^5, 2^7$	19	$1^5, 2^{10}, 4^1$	29	$1^6, 2^6, 4^2$	26
Strong-Weak	$1^8, 2^3, 4^1$	18	$1^8, 2^5, 4^1$	22	$1^{10}, 2^4$	18
Enjoyable-Boring	$1^3, 2^2, 3^1, 4^2$	18	$1^6, 2^5$	16	$1^7, 2^5, 3^1$	20
Totals		174		150		188

pairs of good-bad and fair-unfair if the non-treatment group is any criterion. (Table XIV) Once again slightly higher overall shifts are noted with respect to the pre to post results and pre to post-post results in comparison with post to post-post results. On the five point semantic differential scale there were fifty-eight changes of more than one point in Pre to Post differences, which again suggests changes from original positions.

It appears that Class I, using the cognitive-affective strategy, showed a degree of shift on the evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs of good-bad, safe-dangerous, useful-useless and enjoyable-boring, that is if the non-treatment groups is any criterion. (Table XV) In the overall totals it appears that in the pre to post and pre to post-post tests shifts in positions occurred. When these results are viewed in relation to the profile it appears that shifts have been towards both positive and negative ends of the scale. On the five point semantic differential scale there were thirty-nine changes of more than one point on pre to post differences, about three times the number in relation to the non-treatment group.

Profiles of Positions on Pre, Post and Post-Post Tests for Value Topic II

In treatment class I (open strategy) mean scores on pre, post and post-post forms of the semantic differential were similar on most of the bi-polar adjective pairs. (Figure V) There appeared

TABLE XIV

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASS II FOR THE VALUE TOPIC, "SNOWMOBILES" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	$1^{8}, 2^{10}$	28	$1^{9}, 2^{5}, 4^{1}$	23	$1^{8}, 2^{12}, 3^{1}, 4^{1}$	39
Quiet-Noisy	$1^{7}, 2^{4}, 4^{1}$	19	$1^{10}, 2^{4}$	18	$1^{7}, 2^{6}, 4^{1}$	23
Safe-Dangerous	$1^{13}, 2^{4}, 3^{1}, 4^{1}$	28	$1^{12}, 2^{5}$	22	$1^{7}, 2^{6}, 3^{1}, 4^{1}$	26
Useful-Useless	$1^{15}, 2^{3}$	21	$1^{12}, 2^{6}$	24	$1^{11}, 2^{6}$	23
Kind-Cruel	$1^{6}, 2^{6}$	18	$1^{3}, 2^{2}$	7	$1^{9}, 2^{4}, 4^{1}$	21
Fair-Unfair	$1^{2}, 2^{9}, 3^{3}, 4^{2}$	37	$1^{6}, 2^{3}, 4^{1}$	14	$1^{3}, 2^{13}, 4^{1}$	33
Strong-Weak	$1^{11}, 2^{4}$	19	$1^{9}, 2^{4}$	17	$1^{4}, 2^{10}$	24
Enjoyable-Boring	$1^{7}, 2^{9}, 4^{1}$	29	$1^{10}, 2^{6}$	22	$1^{9}, 2^{4}$	17
Totals		199		147		206

TABLE XV

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASS I FOR THE VALUE TOPIC, "SNOWMOBILES" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	1^9, 2^7, 3^4	35	1^{11}, 2^3, 3^1	20	1^9, 2^7, 4^1	27
Quiet-Noisy	1^{10}, 2^3, 3^1	17	1^6, 2^1	8	1^8, 2^3, 3^1	17
Safe-Dangerous	1^{10}, 2^7	24	1^8, 2^2	12	1^{10}, 2^5	20
Useful-Useless	1^{10}, 2^4, 3^1	21	1^7, 2^3, 3^1	16	1^{15}, 2^2	19
Kind-Cruel	1^7, 2^1	9	1^8, 2^1	10	1^7, 2^2	11
Fair-Unfair	1^8, 2^3, 3^1	17	1^5, 2^4	13	1^5, 2^4, 3^1	16
Strong-Weak	1^{10}, 2^3	16	1^7, 2^4	15	1^{11}, 2^4	19
Enjoyable-Boring	1^6, 2^1, 3^1, 4^2	19	1^{11}, 2^1	13	1^{11}, 2^1, 3^2, 4^1,	23
Totals		158		107		152

PROFILE

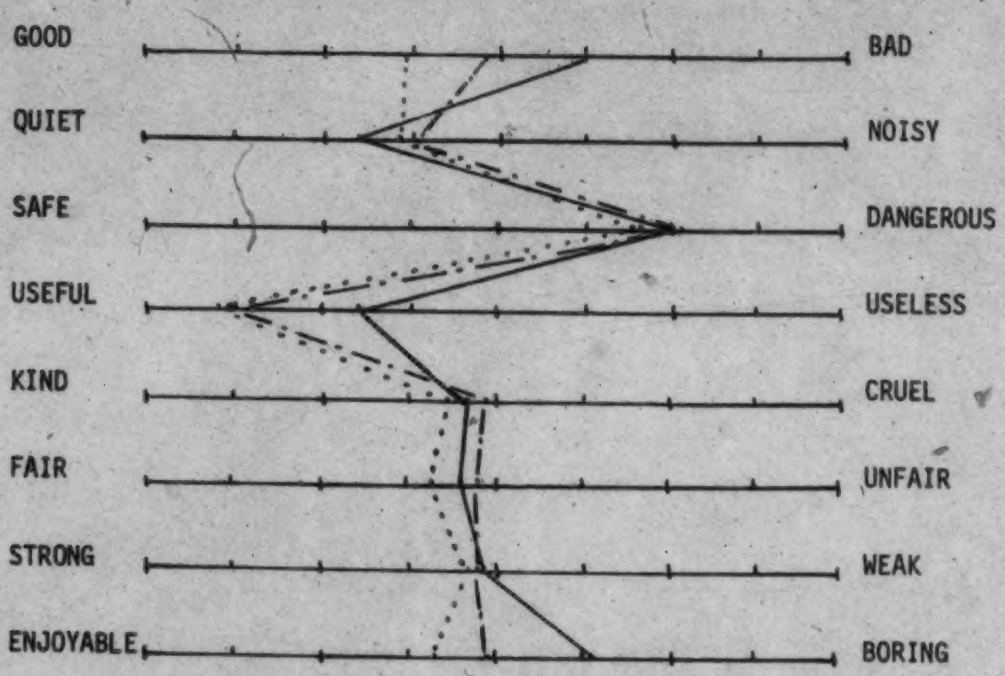

Figure V

Treatment Class I (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Hitchhiking on Pre,

Post and Post-Post Tests

to be a slight shift towards the positive side on almost all adjective pairs from the pre-test to the post-test. However, there tended to be a shift to the original position on some of the adjective pairs when the post-post positions were identified. On the evaluative pairs, good-bad, useful-useless and enjoyable-boring, positions tended to shift towards the positive end of the scale. Measures of variability did not appear to change appreciably.

In treatment class II (cognitive strategy) mean scores on pre, post and post-post forms showed a slight shift towards the positive end of the scales in most cases with post test results showing a move towards the original positions. (Figure VI) This appeared the case particularly in the evaluative scales, good-bad, useful-useless, kind-cruel, fair-unfair and enjoyable-boring.

In treatment class III (cognitive-affective strategy) mean scores on pre-post, and post-post forms showed a clearer shift towards the positive ends of the scales in most cases, with again a return towards the original positions. (Figure VII) It was not intended to influence the students one way or the other but it appeared that students were influenced in this class into thinking about the value topic in the sense of developing more positive positions towards it. Measures of variability did not appear to change appreciably.

In the non-treatment group pre and post means scores were very closely placed with variability fairly consistent. (Figure VIII)

PROFILE

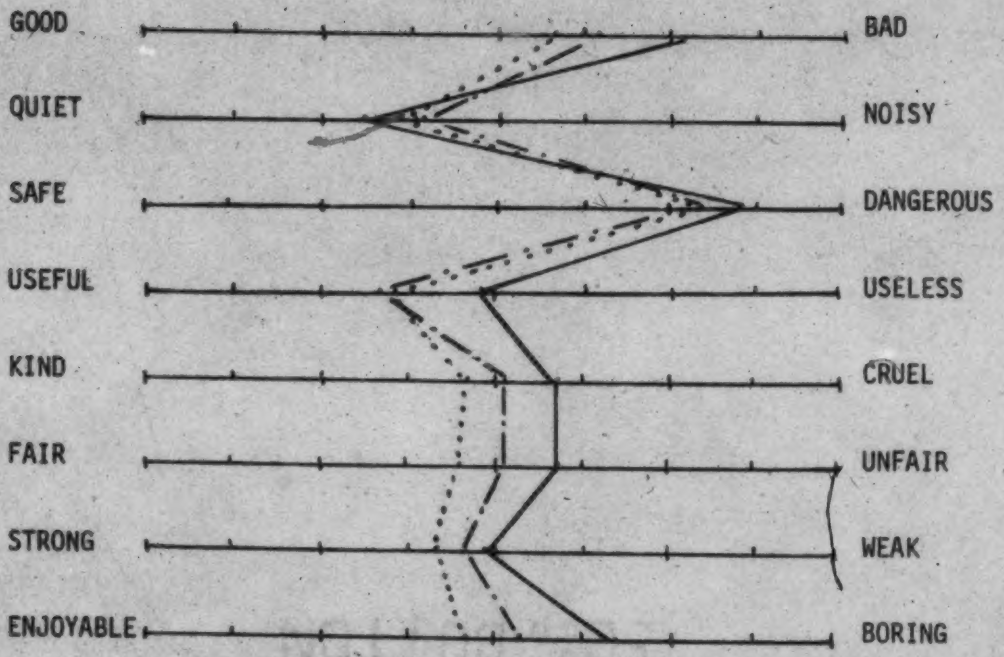

Figure VI

Treatment Class II (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Hitchhiking on Pre,

Post and Post-Post Tests

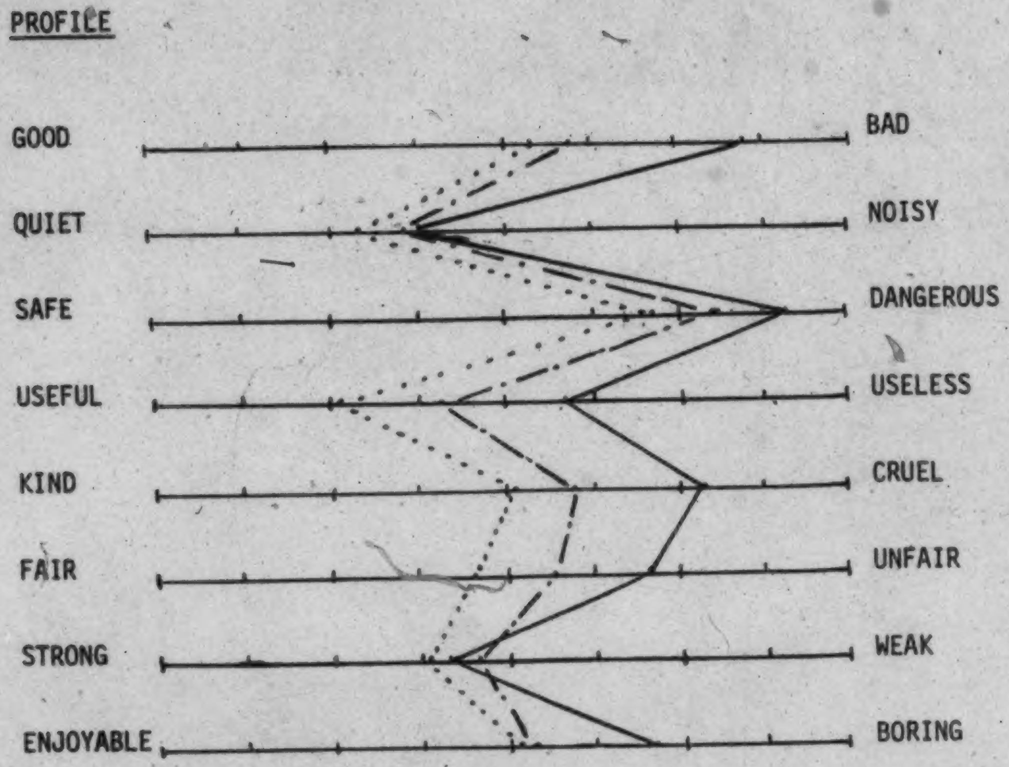

Figure VII

Treatment Class III (N = 29)

Profile of the Positions on Hitchhiking on Pre, Post and Post-Post Tests

PROFILE

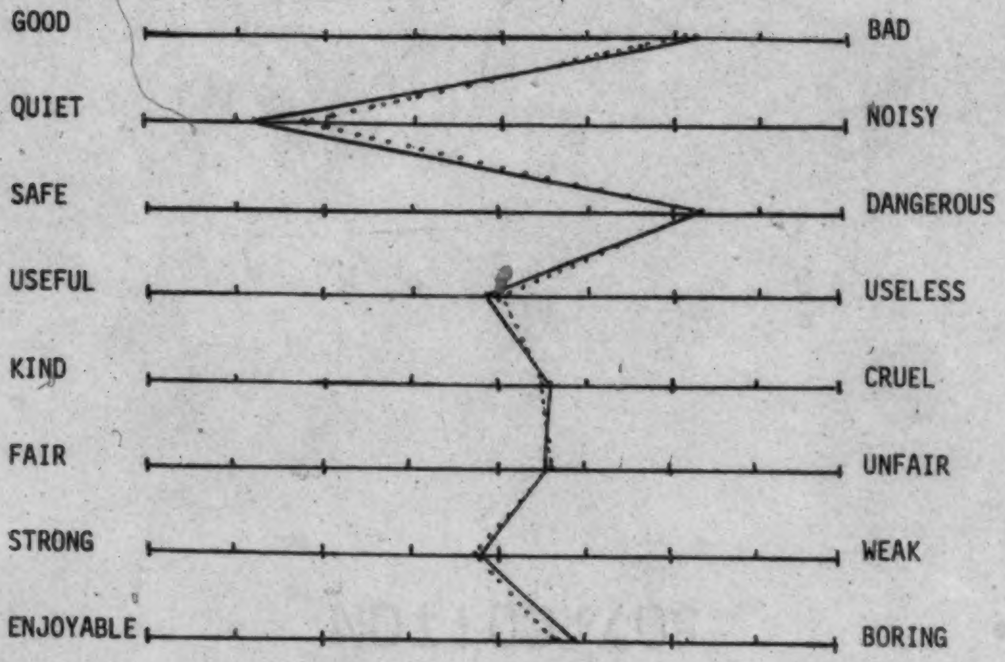

Figure VIII

Non-Treatment Class (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Hitchhiking on

Pre and Post Tests

Pre to Post, Post to Post-Post and Pre to Post-Post Difference Scores on Value Topic II

The difference scores are again described for Value Topic II. The investigator was interested to see if the difference totals would be higher in those classes where there appeared to be a greater shift towards the positive ends of the bi-polar adjective scales. Could the differences be suggested to relate to the strategies that were used? Would the differences appear to be considerably greater than those shown in the non-treatment group? These results are shown for Value Topic II with the non-treatment class and the three treatment classes.

On the five point semantic differential scale there were thirty-seven changes of more than one point. (Table XVI) While no direct comparisons are intended between these results and those of the treatment classes differences largely in excess of these totals could indicate shifts in positions towards the value topic over time periods.

The tables are presented for the three treatment classes on Value Topic II.

It appears that Class I (open strategy) overall pre to post difference totals are similar to the non-treatment group total. (Table XVII) Some degree of shift occurred on the evaluative bi-polar adjective pair, good-bad. Pre to post-post difference totals are similar to the non-treatment groups. There were forty-five changes of more than one point on pre to post

TABLE XVI

PRE TO POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR NON-TREATMENT CLASS ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "HITCHHIKING" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	1^{6}, 2^{3}	12
Quiet-Noisy	1^{6}, 2^{5}, 3^{1}	19
Safe-Dangerous	1^{3}, 2^{1}, 3^{1}	8
Useful-Useless	1^{8}, 2^{5}, 3^{2}	24
Kind-Cruel	1^{12}, 2^{1}	14
Fair-Unfair	1^{6}, 2^{9}	24
Strong-Weak	1^{11}, 2^{4}	19
Enjoyable-Boring	1^{9}, 2^{4}, 3^{1}	20
Total		140

TABLE XVII

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASSROOM I ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "HITCHHIKING" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	$1^5, 2^7, 3^5$	34	$1^{13}, 2^3, 3^2$	25	$1^{11}, 2^7, 3^1$	28
Quiet-Noisy	$1^7, 2^7$	21	$1^8, 2^4$	16	$1^5, 2^7, 4^1$	23
Safe-Dangerous	$1^{11}, 2^1, 3^1, 4^1$	20	$1^{13}, 2^1, 3^1$	18	$1^{10}, 2^1, 4^1$	16
Useful-Useless	$1^{12}, 2^4, 3^2$	26	$1^{11}, 2^1$	13	$1^{10}, 2^7, 3^1$	27
Kind-Cruel	$1^6, 2^2$	10	$1^9, 2^1$	11	$1^5, 2^2$	9
Fair-Unfair	$1^7, 2^5, 3^1$	20	$1^4, 2^5, 3^1$	17	$1^6, 2^3$	12
Strong-Weak	$4^1, 2^1$	6	$1^3, 2^2$	7	$1^3, 2^1$	5
Enjoyable-Boring	$1^{11}, 2^4, 3^3, 4^1$	32	$1^8, 2^4, 3^2$	22	$1^{14}, 2^6$	26
Totals		169		129		146

difference scores.

While no direct comparisons are possible it could well be that students' positions did not really alter to any degree. A larger sample containing several classrooms would have to be utilized before any tentative conclusions could be reached.

It appears that Class II (cognitive strategy) overall pre to post difference totals are in excess of those in the non-treatment group. (Table XVIII)

The profile chart did indicate a positive change on most of the bi-polar adjective pairs which was lessened somewhat as shown by the post-post test results. It would appear from the difference scores some degree of change may have resulted on some of the evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs (e.g. good-bad). Over the five point semantic differential scale there was a total of fifty-two changes of more than one point on the pre to post difference scores. Pre to post-post difference totals were slightly in excess of pre-post difference totals.

It appears that Class III (cognitive-affective strategy) overall pre to post difference totals are considerably in excess of those of the non-treatment group. (Table XIX) The evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs good-bad, safe-dangerous, useful-useless and kind-cruel would appear to show degrees of changed positions, that is if the non-treatment group is any criterion. On the five point semantic differential scale there was a total of seventy-seven changes in excess of one point, more than twice the total of the non-treatment group. It might therefore be concluded that with this

TABLE XVIII

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST, AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASSROOM II ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "HITCHHIKING" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	1^8, 2^6, 3^1, 4^1	27	1^9, 2^6	21	1^9, 2^6, 3^1, 4^2	32
Quiet-Noisy	1^4, 2^5, 4^1	18	1^6, 2^7	20	1^6, 2^{10}	26
Safe-Dangerous	1^{11}, 2^4, 3^2	25	1^8, 2^3	14	1^{10}, 2^5, 3^1	23
Useful-Useless	1^{11}, 2^4, 3^1, 4^1	26	1^6, 2^5, 3^2	22	1^{11}, 2^6, 3^1, 4^2	34
Kind-Cruel	1^8, 2^2, 3^1, 4^2	23	1^{12}, 2^1	14	1^6, 2^5, 3^1, 4^1	23
Fair-Unfair	1^8, 2^7, 4^2	30	1^7, 2^7	21	1^6, 2^9, 3^2, 4^2	35
Strong-Weak	1^3, 2^3, 3^1	12	1^3, 2^3, 3^1, 4^1	16	1^4, 2^4	12
Enjoyable-Boring	1^6, 2^5, 3^2, 4^1	26	1^9, 2^6, 3^1, 4^2	32	1^7, 2^{10}, 3^1, 4^1	34
Totals		187		160		219

TABLE XIX

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASSROOM III ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "HITCHHIKING" (N = 29)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	$1^{4}, 2^{5}, 3^{7}, 4^{1}$	39	$1^{10}, 2^{4}, 4^{1}$	22	$1^{4}, 2^{7}, 3^{1}, 4^{3}$	33
Quiet-Noisy	$1^{7}, 2^{3}$	13	$1^{8}, 2^{4}, 4^{2}$	24	$1^{7}, 2^{5}, 4^{1}$	21
Safe-Dangerous	$1^{11}, 2^{5}, 3^{1}$	24	$1^{8}, 2^{5}, 4^{1}$	22	$1^{9}, 2^{1}, 3^{1}, 4^{1}$	18
Useful-Useless	$1^{7}, 2^{4}, 3^{5}, 4^{6}$	54	$1^{9}, 2^{4}, 3^{1}, 4^{1}$	24	$1^{8}, 2^{5}, 3^{6}, 4^{4}$	52
Kind-Cruel	$1^{7}, 2^{11}, 3^{1}, 4^{1}$	36	$1^{7}, 2^{5}, 3^{1}, 4^{1}$	24	$1^{8}, 2^{7}, 4^{1}$	26
Fair-Unfair	$1^{7}, 2^{9}, 3^{2}, 4^{2}$	39	$1^{9}, 2^{4}, 4^{2}$	25	$1^{5}, 2^{8}, 3^{1}, 4^{1}$	28
Strong-Weak	$1^{6}, 2^{3}, 3^{1}$	15	$1^{5}, 2^{3}$	11	$1^{6}, 2^{6}, 3^{1}$	21
Enjoyable-Boring	$1^{9}, 2^{7}, 4^{2}$	31	$1^{7}, 2^{4}$	15	$1^{4}, 2^{8}, 4^{2}$	28
Totals		251		168		226

value issue the cognitive-affective strategy was instrumental in bringing about changed positions. The profile chart for this class indicated shifts to the positive on most adjective pairs. It is suggested that the cognitive-affective strategy with this value topic may have been influential in inducing students to identify closely with certain people, resulting in moves to the positive side.

Profiles of Positions on Pre, Post and Post-Post Tests for Value Topic III

In treatment class I (cognitive strategy) mean scores on pre, post and post-post test forms of the semantic differential were similar on almost all of the bi-polar adjective pairs. (Figure IX) If the students changed their positions this would tend to indicate that shifts may have been one way for some students and another way for other students. There did not appear to be a noticeable overall shift either towards positive or negative poles in the overall mean scores. Measures of variability appeared fairly consistent. This may have indicated little modification of initial positions.

In treatment class II (cognitive-affective strategy) mean scores on pre, post and post-post forms were again similar on almost all bi-polar adjective pairs. (Figure X) Indications of changed positions may be gained from examination of difference scores on the bi-polar adjective pairs. It appears interesting to note

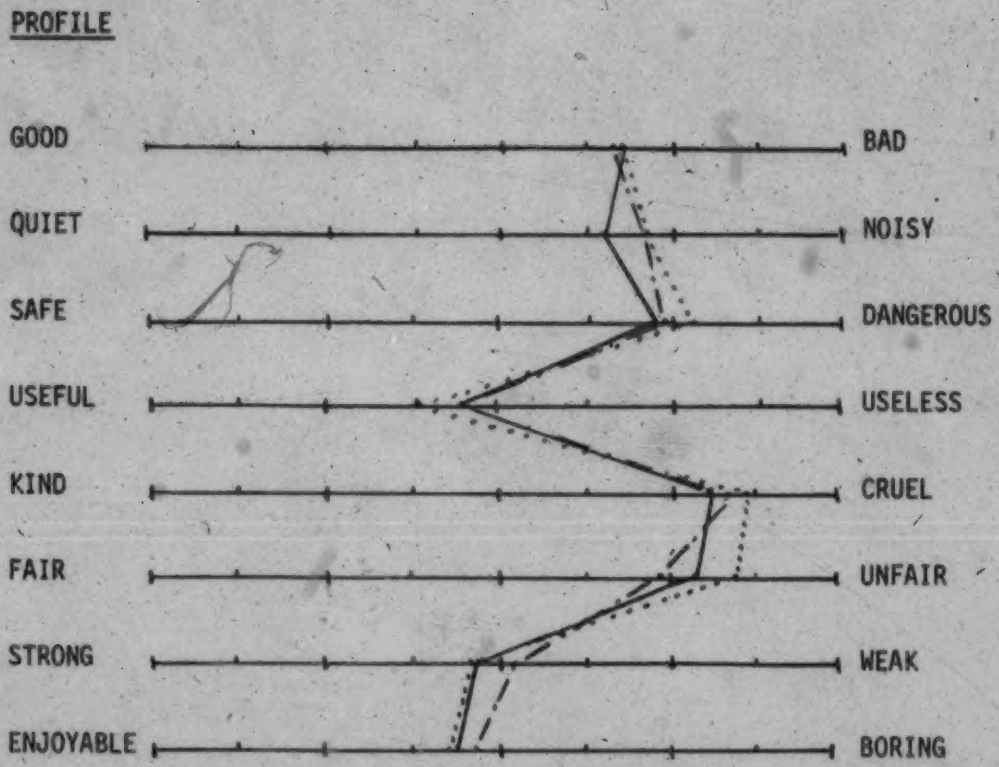

Figure IX

Treatment Class I (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Hunting Big Game Animals

on Pre, Post and Post-Post Tests

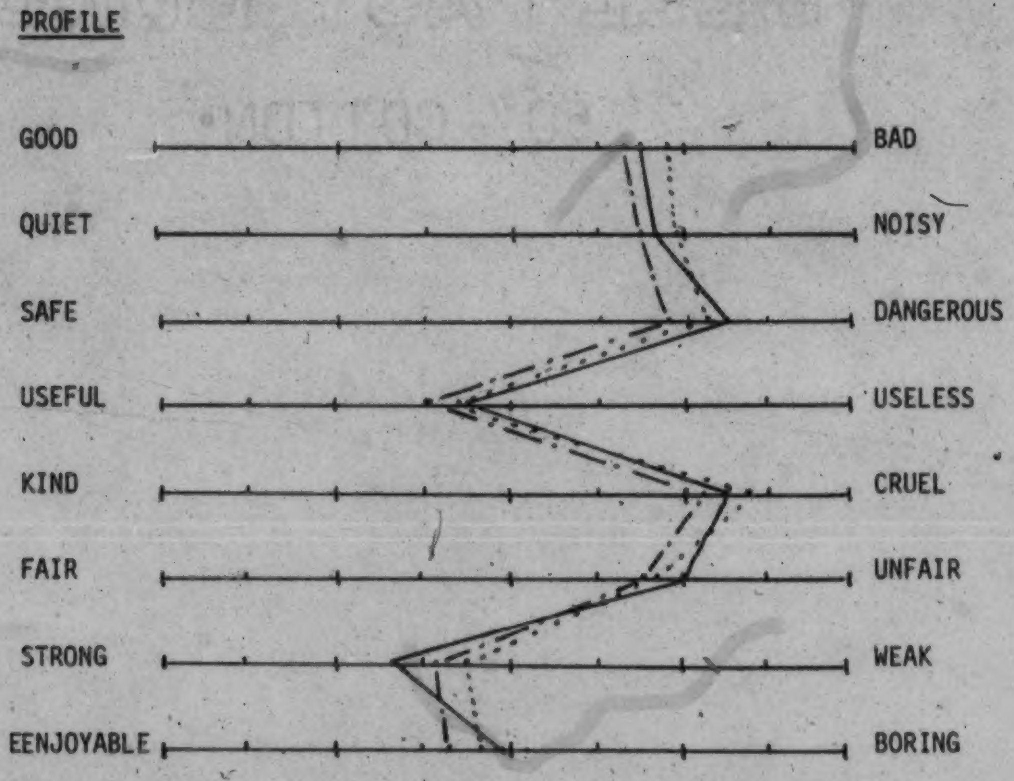

Figure X

Treatment Class II (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Hunting Big Game Animals

on Pre, Post and Post-Post Tests

however that the measure of variability decreased on all bi-polar adjective pairs between the pre-test standard deviation scores and those of the post test. This may have indicated a more general class consensus on positions.

In treatment class III (open strategy) mean scores on pre, post and post-post forms were similar on most bi-polar adjectives. (Figure XI) Measures of variability appeared to be fairly consistent also.

In the non-treatment group pre and post mean scores were close on all adjective pairs, measures of variability also appearing similar. (Figure XII)

Pre to Post, Post to Post-Post and Pre to Post-Post Difference Scores on Value Topic III

The difference scores are again described for Value Topic III. The investigator was interested to see if the difference scores indicated degrees of shift in positions which could not be identified in the previous tables and profiles. The investigator sought to find if questions could be raised regarding the students' possible shifts in positions on the bi-polar adjective scales.

There were thirty changes of more than one point on the five point semantic differential scale for the non-treatment group. (Table XX) Once again, while no direct comparisons are intended between these results and those of the treatment classes differences largely in excess of these totals could indicate

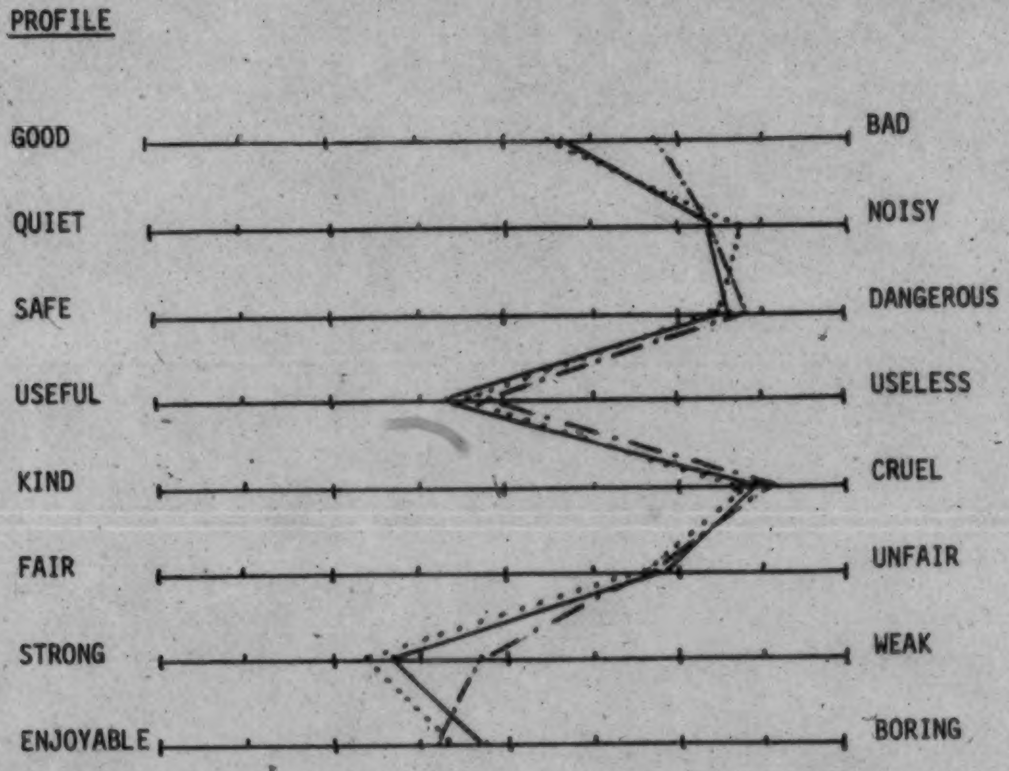

Figure XI

Treatment Class III (N = 29)

Profile of the Positions on Hunting Big Game Animals

on Pre, Post and Post-Post Tests

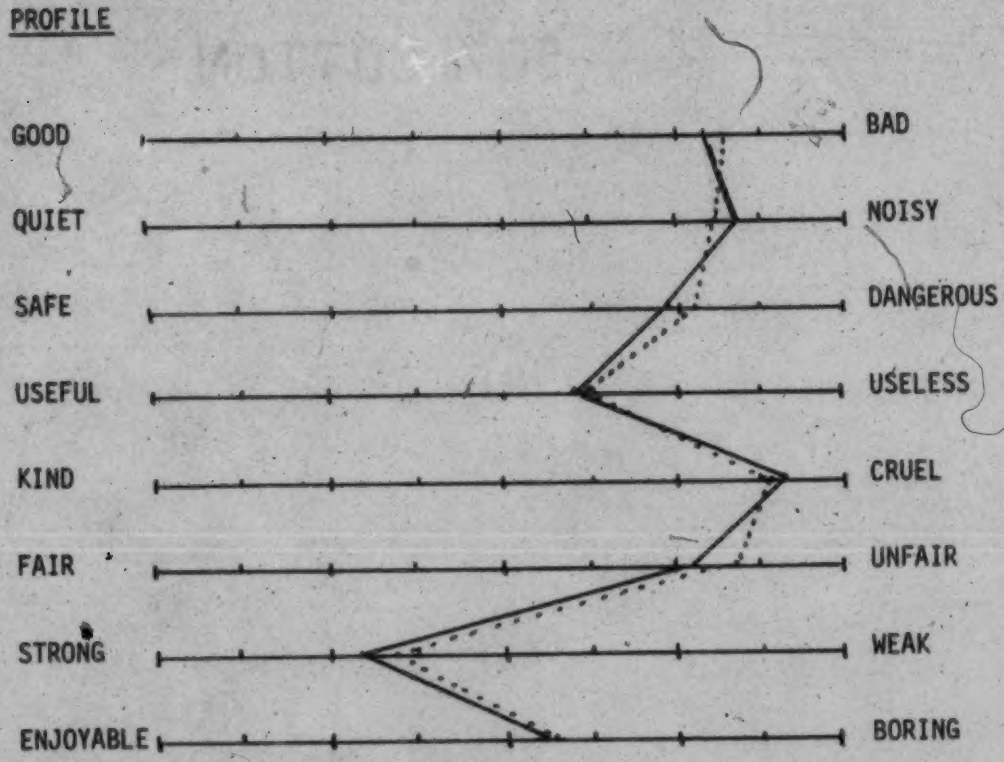

Figure XII

Non-Treatment Class (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Hunting Big Game

Animals on Pre and Post Tests

TABLE XX

PRE TO POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR THE NON-TREATMENT CLASS ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "HUNTING BIG GAME ANIMALS" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	1^9, 2^3	15
Quiet-Noisy	1^6, 2^2, 3^1, 4^1	17
Safe-Dangerous	1^9, 2^3	15
Useful-Useless	1^8, 2^4	16
Kind-Cruel	1^3, 2^2	7
Fair-Unfair	1^6, 2^4, 3^1	17
Strong-Weak	1^9, 2^3, 4^1	19
Enjoyable-Boring	1^6, 2^5	16
Total		122

shifting positions attributed to treatment. As appears evident, little "change" took place on the kind-cruel evaluative adjective pair, whilst on the other pairs "differences" appear small.

The tables are presented for the three treatment classes on Value Topic III.

It appears that Class I (cognitive strategy) overall pre to post difference scores are similar to those of the non-treatment group which might indicate that no differences or shifts in position really occurred. (Table XXI) Pre to post-post difference totals are higher indicating possible shifts over the longer time period. There were thirty changes or shifts of more than one point on the semantic differential scales which was the same as the non-treatment class. It might be concluded that the students' initial positions were generally maintained in their clarification of this particular value issue.

It appears that Class II (cognitive-affective strategy) overall pre to post and pre to post-post differences were similar. (Table XXII) It could not be said that these overall totals suggest a noticeable shift in positions to any degree, that is if the non-treatment group is any criterion. There were forty-eight shifts of more than one point on the semantic differential scale which was about fifty per cent (50%) more than the non-treatment and class I groups.

In class III (open strategy) it appears that the overall pre to post difference scores closely resemble those of the non-treatment group. (Table XXIII) This might indicate that little

TABLE XXI

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASSROOM I ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "HUNTING BIG GAME ANIMALS" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	1^5, 2^4, 3^2	19	1^{10}, 2^3	16	1^8, 2^4, 3^2	22
Quiet-Noisy	1^{11}, 2^4, 3^1	22	1^{10}, 2^4	18	1^{10}, 2^5, 3^2	26
Safe-Dangerous	1^8, 2^2, 3^1	15	1^9, 2^7, 3^1	26	1^7, 2^6, 3^2	25
Useful-Useless	1^7, 2^4	15	1^{10}, 2^3, 3^1	19	1^{13}, 2^3, 3^1	22
Kind-Cruel	1^9, 2^3, 3^1	18	1^{11}, 2^1	13	1^{12}, 2^3, 3^1	23
Fair-Unfair	1^{12}, 2^4, 3^1	23	1^7, 2^6, 3^1	22	1^{10}, 2^7, 3^1	27
Strong-Weak	1^1	1	1^4, 2^1	6	1^5	5
Enjoyable-Boring	1^{10}, 2^3	16	1^9, 2^4	17	1^{15}, 2^2, 3^1	22
Totals		129		137		172

TABLE XXII

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASSROOM II ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "HUNTING BIG GAME ANIMALS" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	1^6, 2^6, 3^2	21	1^5, 2^4, 3^1	16	1^9, 2^3	15
Quiet-Noisy	1^7, 2^5	19	1^{11}, 2^4	19	1^6, 2^5, 3^1	19
Safe-Dangerous	1^5, 2^4, 3^1	16	1^{11}, 2^2	15	1^9, 2^4	17
Useful-Useless	1^6, 2^5, 3^1	19	1^8, 2^6, 3^1	23	1^5, 2^6, 3^2	26
Kind-Cruel	1^4, 2^4	12	1^3, 2^2	7	1^3, 2^4	11
Fair-Unfair	1^5, 2^6	17	1^4, 2^2	8	1^7, 2^7	21
Strong-Weak	1^4, 2^7, 4^1	22	1^3, 2^4, 4^2	19	1^3, 2^8, 4^1	23
Enjoyable-Boring	1^9, 2^6, 4^1	25	1^9, 2^5	19	1^6, 2^4, 4^1	18
Totals		151		126		150

TABLE XXIII

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASSROOM III ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "HUNTING BIG GAME ANIMALS" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	$1^8, 2^6, 4^1$	24	$1^7, 2^7, 4^1$	25	$1^9, 2^6, 3^2$	27
Quiet-Noisy	$1^3, 2^2$	7	$1^3, 2^2$	7	$1^6, 2^3$	12
Safe-Dangerous	$1^8, 2^1$	10	$1^6, 2^4$	14	$1^6, 2^3$	12
Useful-Useless	$1^8, 2^6, 3^1$	23	$1^7, 2^3$	13	$1^6, 2^6, 3^2$	24
Kind-Cruel	$1^4, 2^5, 3^1, 4^1$	21	$1^5, 2^2, 3^1, 4^1$	16	$1^7, 2^3$	13
Fair-Unfair	$1^4, 2^6$	16	$1^7, 2^8$	23	$1^7, 2^5$	17
Strong-Weak	$1^3, 2^6$	15	$1^7, 2^3, 3^1, 4^2$	24	$1^3, 2^3, 3^2$	15
Enjoyable-Boring	$1^8, 2^2, 3^2$	18	$1^{10}, 2^4, 4^1$	22	$1^{10}, 2^4, 4^1$	22
Totals		134		144		142

shift occurred from the students' original positions. There were forty shifts of more than one point on the semantic differential scales which was slightly above that of the non-treatment group. The profile chart for the class also suggests the relative stability of the students' positions.

For this value topic it might be concluded that students' positions remained relatively stable in all classes, irrespective of the strategy used. The nature of the value issue itself, being somewhat removed from the personal experiences of the majority of the students could have been a factor. This might suggest that value issues that are clarified in the classroom setting be closely related to personal experiences.

Profiles of Positions on Pre, Post, and Post-Post Tests for Value Topic IV

With Value Topic IV all three classes used the cognitive-affective strategy.

In treatment class I mean scores appeared to shift somewhat from pre to post positions with little subsequent change to post-post positions. (Figure XIII) It appears also that the class positions have tended to drift to neutral positions. However, measures of variability indicate a wide diversity of opinion especially on evaluative adjective pairs. This also appears to be the case with respect to positions held on all three occasions.

In treatment class II the overall positions of the students

PROFILE

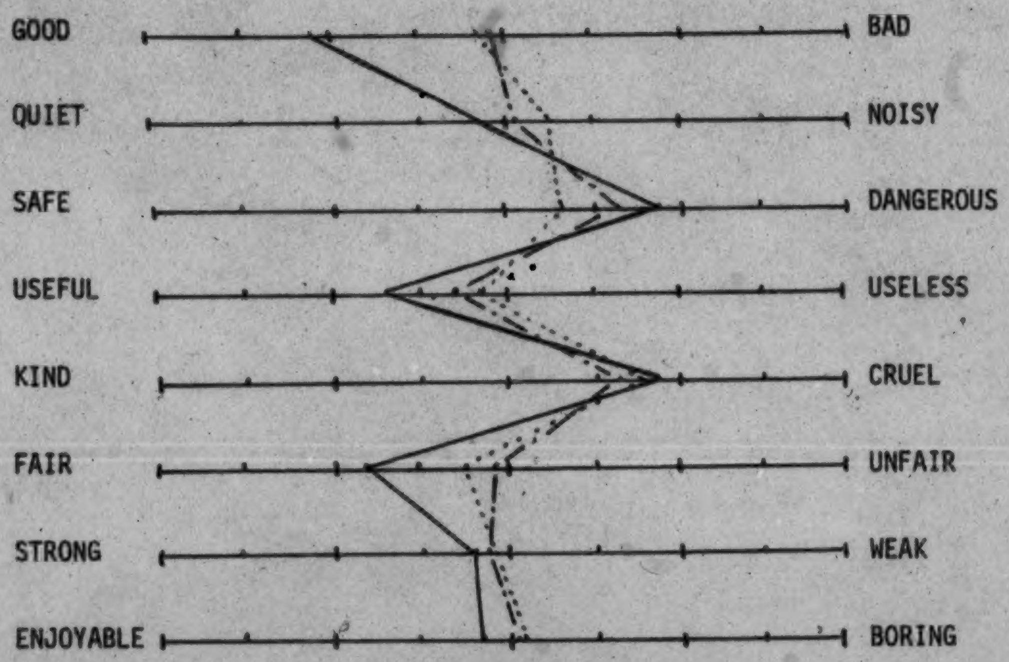

Figure XIII

Treatment Class I (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Capital Punishment

on Pre, Post and Post-Post Tests

indicate that the class took a slightly more negative viewpoint initially but then appeared to shift slightly to more neutral positions on almost all adjective pairs. (Figure XIV) It is interesting to note, however, that the measure of variability decreased on all bi-polar adjective pairs as shown by the pre-test and post-test standard deviation scores. Variability shows a further decrease when the post-post positions are viewed. This might appear to suggest a degree of class consensus on the value topic, attributable to an affective sharing of ideas.

In treatment class III mean scores on pre, post and post-post tests were closely grouped on almost all adjective pairs. (Figure XV) Also, measures of variability appeared to be fairly consistent over the three tests.

In the non-treatment group pre and post mean scores were close on all adjective pairs, measures of variability also appearing to be consistent. (Figure XVI)

Pre to Post, Post to Post-Post and Pre to Post-Post Difference Scores on Value Topic IV

The difference scores are described for Value Topic IV. As all teachers were using the same strategy the investigator was interested to see if the nature of the difference scores would be similar for all classes, and somewhat in excess of the non-treatment group. The investigator again sought to find if questions could be raised regarding possible shifts in positions

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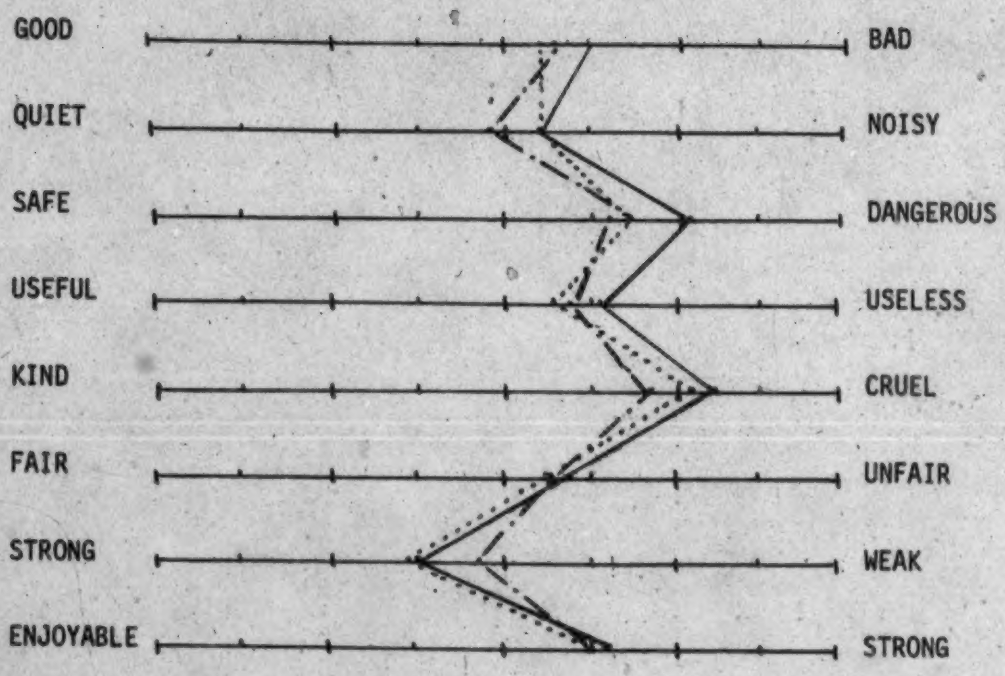

Figure XIV

Treatment Class II (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Capital Punishment on

Pre, Post and Post-Post Tests

PROFILE

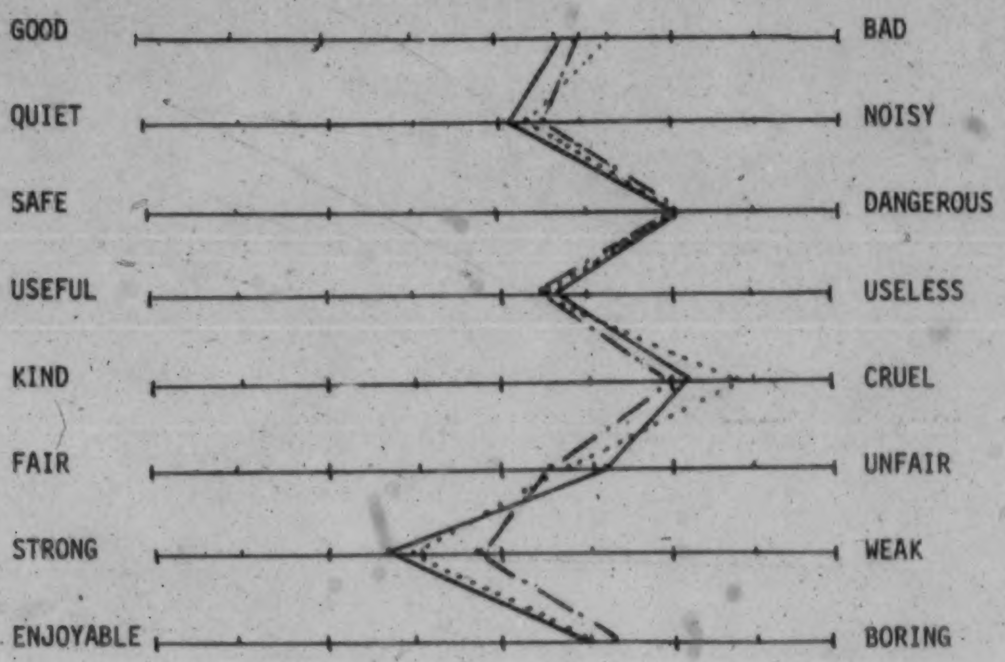

Figure XV

Treatment Class III (N = 29)

Profile of the Positions on Capital Punishment on

Pre, Post and Post-Post Tests

— ····· —·—·—

PROFILE

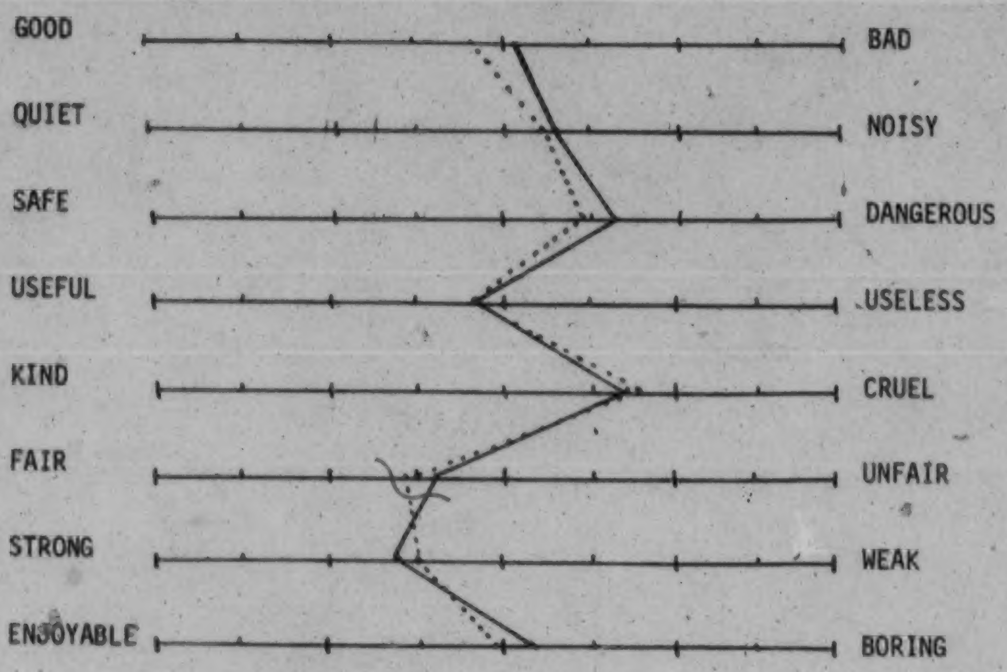

Figure XVI

Non-Treatment Class (N = 30)

Profile of the Positions on Capital Punishment

on Pre and Post Tests

on the bi-polar adjective scales.

On the five point semantic differential scale there were nineteen changes of more than one point on the pre to post differences. (Table XXIV) While no direct comparisons are intended between these results and those of the treatment classes, differences greatly in excess of these totals could indicate shifting positions due to treatment effect. As is evident above, very little "change" took place on at least three of the bi-polar adjective scales.

The tables are presented for the three treatment classes on Value Topic IV.

The results show that the overall Pre to Post differences for Class I are more than double those of the non-treatment group, which might indicate that students adopted different positions on the value topic. (Table XXV) The evaluative bi-polar pairs, good-bad, useful-useless, kind-cruel would appear to show changed positions which is not evident on the profile. On the five point semantic differential scale there were a total of forty-eight changes of more than one point on pre to post differences. It is suggested that the cognitive-affective strategy with this value topic may have been influential in modifying students' positions. Difference scores are higher on the evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs.

Overall pre to post differences for classroom II are also more than double those of the non-treatment group, possibly indicating some treatment effect. (Table XXVI) This appears on evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs; good-bad, useful-useless, kind-

TABLE XXIV

PRE TO POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR NON-TREATMENT CLASS ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "CAPITAL PUNISHMENT" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	1^4, 3^1, 4^2	15
Quiet-Noisy	1^8, 2^6	20
Safe-Dangerous	1^2, 2^3, 3^1	11
Useful-Useless	1^2, 2^1	4
Kind-Cruel	1^4, 2^1	6
Fair-Unfair	1^7, 4^2	15
Strong-Weak	1^3	3
Enjoyable-Boring	1^6, 2^1, 4^1	12
Total		86

TABLE XXV

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASSROOM I ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "CAPITAL PUNISHMENT" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	$1^7, 2^5, 3^4, 4^3$	45	$1^{12}, 2^5, 3^2$	28	$1^{11}, 2^6, 3^2, 4^2$	44
Quiet-Noisy	$1^6, 2^3, 4^1$	16	$1^6, 2^3$	12	$1^5, 2^4, 3^1$	16
Safe-Dangerous	$1^{13}, 2^4, 3^1$	24	$1^9, 2^5, 3^1$	22	$1^8, 2^4, 3^2$	22
Useful-Useless	$1^{13}, 2^2, 3^3, 4^2$	34	$1^8, 2^4, 4^1$	20	$1^{13}, 2^3, 3^2, 4^2$	33
Kind-Cruel	$1^{10}, 2^5, 3^1$	23	$1^6, 2^5, 4^1$	20	$1^{11}, 2^7, 4^1$	29
Fair-Unfair	$1^5, 23, 3^4, 4^1$	27	$1^{12}, 2^6, 3^1, 4^1$	31	$1^8, 2^4, 3^4, 4^3$	40
Strong-Weak	$1^4, 2^2$	8	1^5	5	$1^3, 2^2$	7
Enjoyable-Boring	$1^4, 2^3, 4^1$	14	$1^3, 2^1$	5	$1^5, 2^2, 4^2$	17
Totals		191		143		208

TABLE XXVI

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASSROOM II ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "CAPITAL PUNISHMENT" (N = 30)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	$1^7, 2^6, 3^3, 4^2$	36	$1^{10}, 2^4, 3^1$	21	$1^4, 2^9, 3^3, 4^2$	39
Quiet-Noisy	$1^2, 2^3$	8	$1^5, 2^2, 3^1, 4^1$	16	$1^6, 2^4, 3^2, 4^1$	24
Safe-Dangerous	$1^8, 2^5, 3^1$	21	$1^5, 2^4$	13	$1^8, 2^6$	20
Useful-Useless	$1^6, 2^4, 3^1, 4^2$	25	$1^7, 2^4, 4^1$	19	$1^{10}, 2^1, 3^2, 4^1$	22
Kind-Cruel	$1^6, 2^8$	22	$1^6, 2^3$	12	$1^8, 2^{10}$	28
Fair-Unfair	$1^6, 2^{10}, 4^2$	34	$1^6, 2^1, 3^1, 4^1$	15	$1^5, 2^{11}, 3^2, 4^2$	41
Strong-Weak	$1^3, 2^{10}, 3^2$	29	$1^2, 2^4$	10	$1^6, 2^8, 3^1$	25
Enjoyable-Boring	$1^5, 2^3$	11	$1^4, 2^2$	8	$1^1, 2^4$	9
Totals		186		114		208

cruel, fair-unfair and the potency pair, strong-weak. The profile showed a tendency to shift towards the neutral positions from more negative positions. On the five point semantic differential scale there were sixty-two changes of more than one point on pre to post differences, over three times that of the non-treatment group. It is suggested the cognitive-affective strategy with this value topic may have been influential in modifying students' positions especially on the evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs.

Overall pre to post differences for classroom III are also more than double those of the non-treatment group, possibly indicating some treatment effect. (Table XXVII) On evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs; good-bad, safe-dangerous, useful-useless, kind-cruel, fair-unfair and the potency pair, strong-weak, shifts would appear apparent. There were sixty-six changes of more than one point on the five point semantic differential scale on the pre to post differences, over three times that of the non-treatment group. The profile showed a close grouping of mean scores on almost all bi-polar adjective pairs. However, it would appear that students shifted their positions both ways, some towards the positive and some towards the negative, which may have been partly attributable to the affective sharing of ideas. As with the other classes the mean scores indicate intermediate positions on most bi-polar adjective pairs. It is suggested once again that the use of the cognitive-affective strategy with this value topic may have been influential in modifying students' positions.

TABLE XXVII

PRE TO POST, POST TO POST-POST AND PRE TO POST-POST DIFFERENCE SCORES FOR CLASSROOM III ON THE VALUE TOPIC, "CAPITAL PUNISHMENT" (N = 29)

	Pre to Post Differences	Totals	Post to Post-Post Differences	Totals	Pre to Post-Post Differences	Totals
Good-Bad	$1^3, 2^5, 3^2, 4^5$	39	$1^5, 2^3, 3^2, 4^1$	21	$1^3, 2^7, 3^1, 4^2$	28
Quiet-Noisy	$1^4, 2^2, 3^1, 4^1$	15	$1^6, 2^4, 3^1$	17	$1^6, 2^5$	16
Safe-Dangerous	$1^5, 2^8, 3^1, 4^1$	28	$1^4, 2^4, 4^1$	16	$1^8, 2^{10}$	28
Useful-Useless	$1^4, 2^6, 3^3, 4^2$	33	$1^4, 2^5, 4^2$	22	$1^4, 2^8, 3^2, 4^3$	38
Kind-Cruel	$1^4, 2^6$	16	$1^5, 2^7, 3^1$	22	$1^8, 2^7$	22
Fair-Unfair	$1^4, 2^5, 3^1, 4^5$	37	$1^7, 2^4, 4^2$	23	$1^3, 2^7, 3^1, 4^2$	28
Strong-Weak	$1^1, 2^7, 3^1$	18	$1^4, 2^2, 3^1, 4^2$	19	$1^1, 2^8, 3^2$	23
Enjoyable-Boring	$1^2, 2^4$	10	$1^4, 2^2, 4^1$	12	$1^3, 2^6, 3^1$	18
Totals		196		152		201

Summary of Findings from the Evaluation of Students' Positions on Value Topics as Measured by Pre, Post and Post-Post Semantic Differential Forms

The value clarification procedures did not attempt to influence the students in any particular direction. It was thought, however, that students' attitudes towards the value topic and value issue in question would be modified as a result of value clarification procedures that were used. Furthermore, it was expected that the cognitive-affective strategy would produce shifts in positions on the semantic differential scales more than the other two procedures, namely, the cognitive strategy and the open strategy. Whilst this was not evident in Issue I, it was noticeable in Issues II and III, whilst with Issue IV when all classes used the cognitive-affective strategy similar shifts were observed in all classes. A descriptive summary table of overall high and low difference scores on pre to post tests for the first three value topics suggests that the cognitive-affective strategy was influential in the modification of student positions. (Table XXVIII)

Another descriptive summary table (Table XXIX) suggests that the value topics and issues themselves were instrumental in contributing towards modification of student positions.

In Value Topic I student positions as measured by mean scores on pre-post and post-post forms of the semantic differential did not vary appreciably from one point of time to another. Slight

TABLE XXVIII

DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF OVERALL HIGH AND LOW (PRE TO POST TEST) DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL ACCORDING TO STRATEGY

	HIGH	LOW
Good-Bad	Cognitive-Affective	Cognitive
Quiet-Noisy	Cognitive-Affective	Open
Safe-Dangerous	Cognitive	Open
Useful-Useless	Cognitive-Affective	Cognitive
Kind-Cruel	Cognitive	Open
Fair-Unfair	Cognitive-Affective	Cognitive
Strong-Weak	Cognitive-Affective	Cognitive
Enjoyable-Boring	Open	Cognitive
Totals	Cognitive-Affective	Cognitive

TABLE XXIX

DESCRIPTIVE SUMMARY OF OVERALL HIGH AND LOW (PRE TO POST TEST) DIFFERENCE SCORES ON THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL ACCORDING TO VALUE ISSUE

	HIGH	LOW
Good-Bad	Issue II	Issue III
Quiet-Noisy	Issue II	Issue III
Safe-Dangerous	Issue I	Issue III
Useful-Useless	Issue II	Issue III
Kind-Cruel	Issue II	Issue III
Fair-Unfair	Issue II	Issue III
Strong-Weak	Issue I	Issue II
Enjoyable-Boring	Issue II	Issue III
Totals	Issue II	Issue III

moves to the negative seemed to be present with all three classes. However, modifications of positions related to the strategy employed were not apparent. Differences scores seemed to indicate that some modification in positions may have taken place in all three classrooms, with the greatest number of changes of more than one point on the semantic differential pre-post scores occurring in classroom II. The evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs of good-bad, useful-useless and safe-dangerous recorded the higher shifts. The measure of variability did not appear to change appreciably.

In Value Topic II student positions appeared to shift from generally negative to generally positive in all three classes. The degree of shift appeared to vary with the strategy employed by the teacher. However, the teacher variable may have been an important factor. Class I (open strategy) showed a slight shift on all bi-polar adjective pairs, class II (cognitive strategy) a slightly wider shift on most bi-polar adjective pairs, and class III (cognitive-affective strategy) a wider shift on all bi-polar adjective pairs. It was noticeable though that post-post test results indicated a retreat to positions generally between pre and post positions. The difference scores appeared to indicate a similar pattern of changed positions, class I showing differences only slightly in excess of those in the non-treatment group, class II suggesting some change on the evaluative bi-polar adjective pair good-bad, with class III showing possible changes in several evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs. Similarly, changes in excess of one point on the five point semantic differential scale followed this pattern, those in class III being in excess of the other classes. While no definite conclusions can be drawn from these findings, at least from this value topic some superiority might be suggested for the use of the cognitive-affective strategy.

In Value Topic III student positions did not appear to vary appreciably from one period of time to another according to the mean scores as displayed in the profiles. Difference scores whilst slightly in excess of those for the non-treatment group were not sufficiently greater to suggest any possible shifts in positions. Class II (cognitive-affective strategy) had the greater number of shifts of more than one point on pre-post differences on the semantic differential, but not sufficiently greater than the other classes to suggest any definite advantage of the strategy used.

All classes used the cognitive-affective strategy in Value Topic IV. It was thought that perhaps the nature of shifts in positions might be similar for all classes if the teachers adopted the strategy in its entirety with the same degree of interest being displayed by teachers and pupils alike. As with other value topics the initial positions held by each of the classes was slightly different. Class I held positive positions on three evaluative dimensions but these moved to neutral on the post test. Classes II and III held slightly negative positions on the evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs but there was a tendency for these to also move slightly towards more neutral positions. Difference scores appear to indicate similar trends in the three classes. Pre to post and pre to post-post difference scores are similar in the three classes, but considerably in excess of the non-treatment group. It also appeared that modifications of position were on the same evaluative bi-polar adjective pairs of good-bad, safe-dangerous, useful-useless, kind-cruel and fair-unfair. In classes II and III the potency pair, strong-weak would appear to indicate modification in position also.

While no definite conclusions can be reached regarding these findings some comments appear warranted at this time.

1. The apparent stability of overall positions is shown by mean scores on the semantic differential at three points in time. The profiles appear to show that while shifts were slight overall they tend to follow the pattern set by the pre-test positions. The profile of each class appears to display its unique characteristics.
2. The nature of the value topics may have been instrumental in contributing to shifts that appear to occur. In Value Topics I and III positions appear to hold with all classes. In Topic II they tended to shift towards the positive ends of the scales. In Topic IV they tended to shift towards the centre.
3. The advantages of the cognitive-affective strategy were by no means clear. However, in Value Topic II the classroom using this strategy recorded the greater shifts as indicated in the profile, and in difference scores. In Value Topic IV the consistency of results across

classes was apparent, as shown by the profiles and difference scores.

Some questions also appear pertinent.

1. To what extent is the value topic and issue itself important to modify and clarify student viewpoints and positions?
2. Will the cognitive-affective strategy foster clarification and changed positions on some value topics and issues consistently?
3. Is the cognitive-affective strategy preferable for students when they are engaged in value clarification of a particular issue?

The answers to these questions can be sought by further research. It does appear however the the value topic itself is an important variable. If the results of Value Topic IV are any indication it could be that the cognitive-affective strategy is the favourable procedure for value clarification. Motivation and student interest may be higher when students' feelings become involved in value clarification. It was hoped that some insight into this question could be gained by examining students' written reactions to the program itself.

V. Findings from Information Gained from Children's Written Reactions Following Completion of the Study

In Chapter III the procedure and purposes were outlined in which students reacted to a written questionnaire following completion of the main study.

These findings are reported in frequency distribution tables together with written comments made by the students.

Tables XXX to XXXIII show the frequency distribution of responses to the question (I), "What did you think about discussing these topics in your social studies class?"

The three categories or values of the variable consist of responses of; "I liked it very much", "I did not like it", and "I'm not sure". Each table gives both the frequency of each of these values and the proportion of the total number of observations in each class.

It would appear from these responses that the students enjoyed the program in all three classrooms.

Tables XXXIV to XXXVII show the frequency distribution of responses to the question (II), "Did you think that you learned many new ideas from discussing these topics in class?"

The three values of the variable consist of "yes", "no", and "not sure". Each table gives both the frequency for each of these values and the proportion of the total number of observations in each class.

It would also appear from these responses that the students learned many new ideas from discussing the value topics and clarifying the issues. In addition, students were asked to explain their answer following their response to Question II. A summary of these responses is shown.

TABLE XXX

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THIRTY (30) RESPONSES OF CLASS I TO THE QUESTION I "WHAT DID YOU THINK ABOUT DISCUSSING THESE TOPICS IN YOUR SOCIAL STUDIES CLASS?"

Response	f	p
I liked it very much	26	.87
I did not like it	1	.03
I am not sure	3	.10
Total	30	1.00

TABLE XXXI

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THIRTY (30) RESPONSES OF CLASS II TO QUESTION I

Response	f	p
I liked it very much	25	.83
I did not like it	2	.07
I am not sure	3	.10
Total	30	1.00

TABLE XXXII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF TWENTY-NINE (29) RESPONSES OF CLASS III TO QUESTION I

Response	f	p
I liked it very much	25	.86
I did not like it	1	.03
I am not sure	3	.11
Total	29	1.00

TABLE XXXIII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EIGHTY-NINE (89) RESPONSES OF THREE TREATMENT CLASSES TO QUESTION I

Response	f	p
I liked it very much	76	.85
I did not like it	4	.05
I am not sure	9	.10
Total	89	1.00

TABLE XXXIV

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THIRTY (30) RESPONSES OF CLASS I TO QUESTION II

Response	f	p
Yes	26	.87
No		
Not sure	4	.13
Total	30	1.00

TABLE XXXV

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THIRTY (30) RESPONSES OF CLASS II TO QUESTION II

Response	f	p
Yes	27	.90
No	1	.03
Not sure	2	.07
Total	30	1.00

TABLE XXXVI

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF TWENTY-NINE (29) RESPONSES OF CLASS III TO QUESTION II

Response	f	p
Yes	27	.94
No	1	.03
Not sure	1	.03
Total	29	1.00

TABLE XXXVII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EIGHTY-NINE (89) RESPONSES OF THREE TREATMENT CLASSES TO QUESTION II

Response	f	p
Yes	80	.90
No	2	.02
Not sure	7	.08
Total	89	1.00

"You are able to share the feelings of others."

"I think you learn a lot by expressing your opinion."

"I learned the rules I should follow if I was in the situation."

"I learned quite a bit from the discussion and the papers."

"Many people came up with ideas and I changed my opinion."

"I learnt from the viewpoints."

"It was fun. I learnt more and way what others think."

"I learned from other people in the class, their viewpoints on the topics."

"I didn't know much about it before."

"I learned a lot because of the information."

From these responses it would appear that new ideas were gained through the sharing of thoughts in discussion and in the information that was utilized.

It was expected that the students might indicate some preferences concerning the value topics that they were involved in. For this reason the students were asked, "How did you like discussing these topics in class?" (Question III) The three values of the variable consist of, "I liked this topic very much", "I did not like this topic" and "I am not sure". Because the results were very similar for each of the three classes one table is used to summarize the findings. (Table XXXVIII)

From these responses it appeared that all topics were suitable for discussion. The first two value topics which dealt with information that was within the immediate environment of the

TABLE XXXVIII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EIGHTY-NINE (89) RESPONSES OF THREE TREATMENT CLASSES TO FOUR VALUE TOPICS

Response	Snowmobiles		Hitchhiking		Big Game Hunting		Death Penalty	
	f	p	f	p	f	p	f	p
I liked this topic very much.	63	.71	58	.65	48	.54	55	.62
I did not like this topic.	6	.07	13	.15	18	.20	14	.16
I am not sure.	20	.22	18	.20	23	.26	20	.22
Totals	89	1.00	89	1.00	89	1.00	89	1.00

students' interests seemed to be favoured slightly over the latter two topics. What is perhaps interesting to note however is the fact that students were interested in these last two topics almost to the same degree as the first two, which may indicate that students at this age level can clarify value issues which might appear to be beyond their immediate environmental situation. Some of the comments made by students are as follows:

> "I did not like Hunting Big Game Animals because I like animals."
>
> "I didn't like one topic more than another."
>
> "I liked them all."
>
> "I liked some topics more because I learnt more about them."
>
> "They were all exciting."
>
> "I liked the death penalty because you found out what the changes were and what happens when you commit a crime."

It has been recognized the cognition and affect cannot be truly separated, and in fact that they are in reality mutually interdependent. Realizing this situation the investigator sought to find if students expressed their feelings more when the full strategy was used. It was considered that the responses would be somewhat higher in this case. The question was asked, "In which topic did your teacher ask you to express your feelings?" (Question IV) The results to the question are presented according to the strategy used. (Table XXXIX)

Whilst the higher percentage of expression of feelings was associated with the cognitive-affective strategy the other two

TABLE XXXIX

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO THE EXPRESSION OF FEELINGS ACCORDING TO STRATEGY USED (N = 89)

Strategy	f[3]	p[3]
Cognitive[1]	57	.64
Open[1]	54	.61
Cognitive-Affective[1]	63	.71
Cognitive-Affective[2]	75	.84

[1] These totals are for Value Topics I, II, III one class per Value Topic.

[2] These totals are for Value Topic IV in which all 3 classes used the cognitive-affective strategy.

[3] Frequency and percentage are based on the totals of the 3 classes (89) for each strategy.

clarification procedures also indicated that students were expressing their feelings.

With respect to the value topics that were utilized it was considered that some topics might elicit the expression of feelings more than others. In the case of value topic IV where the three classes used the cognitive-affective strategy it was again expected that the responses would be higher than for the other three value topics in which each class used a different strategy.

It appeared that Value Topic III elicited a higher percentage of responses in the expression of feelings than Topics I and II. Value Topic IV showed a higher percentage again, which was expected. (Table XL)

It would appear that while no conclusions can be made from these findings the close relationship between thoughts, ideas, facts and feelings would seem apparent. The process of discussion irrespective of the strategy the teacher was using would appear to involve the expression of feelings. The interest that was apparent during the course of the study also appeared to generate the expression of feelings.

The investigator sought to pursue the students' expression of feelings. A further question was asked. "Did expressing your feelings help you to understand these topics?" (Question V)

Tables XLI to XLIV show the frequency distribution of responses to this question. The three values of the variable are yes, no and not sure. As with previous tables both the frequency for each of these classes and the proportion of the total number of

TABLE XL

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONSES TO THE EXPRESSION OF FEELINGS, ACCORDING TO VALUE TOPIC (N = 89)

Value Topic	f[3]	p[3]
I[1]	53	.60
II[1]	56	.63
III[1]	65	.73
IV[2]	75	.84

[1] In these Value Topics each class used a different strategy.

[2] In this Value Topic the three classes used the cognitive-affective strategy.

[3] Frequency and percentage are based on the totals of the three classes (89) for each strategy.

TABLE XLI

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THIRTY (30) RESPONSES OF CLASS I TO QUESTION V

Responses	f	p
Yes	11	.37
No	6	.20
Not sure	13	.43
Total	30	.100

TABLE XLII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THIRTY (30) RESPONSES OF CLASS II TO QUESTION V

Responses	f	p
Yes	20	.67
No	5	.165
Not sure	5	.165
Total	30	.100

TABLE XLIII

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF TWENTY-NINE (29) RESPONSES OF CLASS III TO QUESTION V

Responses	f	p
Yes	22	.76
No	1	.03
Not sure	6	.21
Total	29	1.00

TABLE XLIV

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF EIGHTY-NINE (89) RESPONSES OF CLASSES I, II AND III TO QUESTION V

Responses	f	p
Yes	53	.60
No	12	.13
Not sure	24	.27
Total	89	.100

observations in each class is given. Table XLIV summarizes the totals for the three classes.

It would appear that classroom I was less sure that the expression of feelings helped in the understanding of the topics. Classrooms II and III appeared to view the expression of feelings more positively in helping to understand the topics. It was noted earlier in the study that class I consisted of students of higher average intelligence than the other two classes. Could it be that students of higher intelligence have more difficulty or are less favourable to the expression of their feelings? From classroom observation it appeared that classroom I conducted themselves in a more serious tone with some difficulty observed in expressing of personal feelings. In the other classes it did appear that students were able to express personal feelings more readily.

Some of the students' comments concerning their expressing of feelings are listed below.

"It made me feel as if I was that person."

"It helped me understand."

"You get your ideas out in the open and I get to understand better."

"Expressing your feelings did not help me; it confused me a little."

"Half of the time it was too difficult."

When asked, "What caused your ideas to change?", student responses appeared to centre on the discussing and sharing of thoughts and viewpoints, the discovery of new facts from information provided, and the personal experiences as described in the written viewpoints.

A selection of these student responses is presented.

"I think it was the sharing of ideas."

"With the facts on the sheets."

"When you get to express your ideas to the class you get to understand it."

"I don't know what caused me to change my ideas, but I guess I just like doing this kind of work."

"Listening to the other views."

"Talking over them and discussing."

"When I found out new things I changed a little."

"I changed the more I learned."

"I didn't know very much about the topics but learning new facts and discussing helped me change my thoughts."

"At the beginning of the week I thought differently but during the week people came down with ideas which made me change my opinion."

"Learning the laws caused my ideas to change."

"Other peoples' ideas, and discussing people's feelings mostly."

"I learned more facts."

"By looking at other people's viewpoints."

"Information."

In order to determine some measure of feedback from the procedures that were used in the study the students were asked to respond to ten items that were basic to the program. The five values of each consisted of; Liked a lot (1), Liked a little (2), Did not like or dislike (3), Disliked a little (4) and Disliked a lot (5). Table XLV gives the mean scores and ranks (1-10) for the ten items.

These results while by no means conclusive appear to confirm some of the previous observations. However, within the first five the item "Listening to all the ideas being discussed", had not been indicated in earlier observations. Since this item was ranked within the first three by all treatment classes it is suggested that this may be an important factor to consider in the value clarification procedure. It would appear that the cultivation of listening skills might foster an appreciation of different viewpoints to a greater degree, assisting in the clarification of a value issue.

A selection of responses is shown below in which the students were asked if they could explain some of the reasons for their answers.

> "I liked the information very much because I liked to listen to the people who wrote to the newspaper."
>
> "I like to see how other people feel and think about topics."
>
> "I found it interesting to hear other persons viewpoints, and I enjoyed telling my own."
>
> "I liked almost all of them because I've never done anythings like this before, and also it was interesting."
>
> "I like learning facts and information.
>
> "I know more things if I write down my thoughts on cards."

TABLE XLV

MEAN SCORES AND RANKING OF EIGHTY-NINE (89) RESPONSES TO VALUE CLARIFICATION PROCEDURES

Items	Mean Score	Rank
Learning from the viewpoints of other students in the class.	1.57	1
Listening to all the ideas being discussed.	1.59	2
Learning from the viewpoints on the papers.	1.63	3
Learning from the facts and information.	1.69	4
Expressing my thoughts to other students in the class.	1.70	5
Expressing my feelings.	1.77	6
The teacher questioning us to help us express our thoughts	1.92	7
The teacher questioning us to help us express our feelings.	1.92	7
Making my final decision on the decision card.	1.99	9
Expressing my thoughts on the thought cards.	2.40	10

"For my thought cards I can say things, but I find it hard to write my feelings down."

"I think this new kind of work is fun."

"I liked the help so I could express my feelings freely."

"I liked listening to other people's viewpoints for ideas. I liked learning from the facts and information, and I kind of liked viewpoints on paper."

If students enjoy "learning from the viewpoints of other students in the class, the development of listening skills would seem to be essential. Learning to use the value clarification procedure, listening to the thoughts and feelings of others and identifying with the viewpoints of others may assist the individual to clarify his own thoughts and feelings, assisting further in the process of value clarification.

Summary

From the findings gained from students' written reactions following completion of the study some tentative conclusions are presented.

It would appear that the students enjoyed the program and learned many new ideas. Sharing the feelings of others, listening, contributing to the discussion, learning from the facts information and written viewpoints seemed to be favourable aspects of the program according to expressed comments. The topics appeared to be suitable for the interest level of the students and they appeared to be challenged. The cognitive-affective strategy appeared to lead to a slightly higher expression of feelings than the other strategies though this indication was by no means clear. Some issues were considered to involve a greater expression of feelings than others. In two of the classes the expression of feelings appeared to help the students whilst in the one class the majority were not sure. Many students however, appeared to favour the expressing of feelings out in the open. The sharing of ideas and learning of facts and information appeared to assist many students in the modification of their positions. Students ranked more highly learning of viewpoints from others in the class, listening to others, and learning from viewpoints on the papers. Student written comments appeared to support these rankings.

VI. Information Gained by Classroom Observation, and Reactions from Teachers who Participated in the Study

In Chapter III the purposes and procedures of securing additional information while classes were in progress was outlined. One of the major concerns was the implementation of the strategies. Some of the class sessions were tape recorded for this purpose. In addition it was hoped that further information would be gained as to suitability of the strategies used.

Analysis of this information is briefly described in this section. Selected transcribed sessions with different strategies relating to teacher-talk are outlined in Appendix G.

In the classes where cognitive and cognitive-affective strategies were used it was expected that the questions would be closely followed. It was also expected that the teachers would spend time repeating and clarifying responses of students, reviewing information, giving some directions, responding and reacting without reflecting their views or directing students to one side of the issue, and using some questions that would be very closely related to the strategy level questions. In the classes where the open strategy was used it was expected that the teachers would not direct the discussion with specific questions but that the clarification of the issue would be developed by the students with the teacher ensuring discussion continuance.

A brief sample of teacher talk using the open strategy in clarifying the Hunting topic on the final day is as follows:

"Shall we continue the discussion today. ."

"Fred"

"Tanya. . . . . yes. . . . what do you think of that. . ."

"Loretta"

"Well, Loretta has said if they lower the hunting fee more animals will be shot."

"Rodney"

"All right. Peter"

"In other words you're disagreeing that the people who are younger are going to have the accidents. You're saying they're not going to have the accidents."

"Wendy"

"I don't think we follow, Wendy"

"So you're saying if the license is changed. . "

A brief sample of teacher talk on the final day in clarifying the same topic, Hunting, but with another teacher who is using the cognitive strategy is as follows:

"What was one kind of action?"

"You consider banning. . "

"Another kind of action we've talked about. . . . ."

"Various changes in licenses."

"Another kind of action?"

"Tagging the animal that you killed"

"Any other kind of action?"

"Let's look at these, and what we're going to consider today is a priority of action. What does this mean?"

"Which of these actions would you think you'd like to see take place first?"

"Banning. . "

"What do you think the result of that would be?"

"Would there be any other result?"

A brief sample of teacher talk on the final day in clarifying the Hitchhiking topic with another teacher using the cognitive strategy is as follows:

"Yesterday we talked about the many points of view from what you developed following our discussion of certain people's viewpoints. Let's review these to help you decide what is the course of action that should be followed."

"Doug. . . . yes"

"What is your reason?"

"Do others agree with that?"

"Yes. . . ."

"Is there a different action that should be taken from all these?"

"No hitchhiking at all then. . . .?"

"What are your reasons?"

These above samples appeared to be typical of teacher talk with respect to open and cognitive strategies. The cognitive strategy was a more teacher directed approach with a higher percentage of time devoted to teacher talk. The open strategy showed the teacher more as a guide in the student centred discussion. There appeared to be a higher percentage of classroom time devoted to student talk with a lower percentage of time to teacher talk.

Brief samples of teacher talk using the cognitive-affective strategy in clarifying the Capital Punishment topic on the second and third days follows.

"We've been reading different points of view about the death penalty being a deterrent, and not being a deterrent"

"What is the point of view of the first person?"

"Yes"

"What reasons does he give for his point of view?"

"All right. . . .Are there any other reasons?"

"Yes"

"If you were George Harsh how would you feel?"

"In any words can you tell me how you think he feels?"

"Yes. . ."

The next brief sample shows further extension to the affective side of the full strategy.

"What is the view of this person?"

"Yes. . . .is he saying anything else?"

"Why is he expressing this viewpoint?"

"Yes, are there other reasons?"

"If you were this person how would you feel?"

"Yes."

"Do you think he really feels that?"

"Yes. . .How would you feel if you had spent this time--twelve years for a crime that you realize was useless?"

"Yes. . .What do you think?"

"Yes"

It appeared from the periods that were recorded that the teachers were following the strategies quite closely. Having observed the pilot study in operation many small difficulties had been eradicated and during the early stages of the study some further modifications were made.

Reactions from the teachers who participated in the study added further information that appeared relevant. Following completion of the study the teachers were asked to respond in writing to a subjective-type questionnaire. A copy of this is outlined in Appendix I.

The three teachers found the suitability of topics as appropriate, of high interest and within the range of experiences of the students, with the possible exception of Capital Punishment.

The amount and content of written information that was used by the students also appeared suitable but sometimes it was considered that additional information was necessary. The outline of instructions was adequate, and usually easy to follow, though it was expressed that it was difficult to follow different methods particularly where the feeling component was not to be considered. It was felt that preparation time for classes was similar to that of other lessons and that instructions were clear on this.

As to suitability of the three processes, all teachers felt that the cognitive was less effective besides being the most difficult to implement. The cognitive-affective strategy was favoured in relation to the other processes. It was the "easiest and most satisfying", though more time was involved in presenting most viewpoints. The open strategy was preferred over the cognitive strategy.

The teachers expressed a variety of statements in stating items of the processes that they considered most vital. Pertinent facts, viewpoints, oral expression of pupils, asking how they would feel and having students listen were given as statements. The affective side of the strategy was regarded as "very important" and "truly meaningful". All teachers expressed the idea that the strategies used were different from others they had attempted in that their interpretations and viewpoints could not be expressed. Carry over effect was noted in the ability to be more expressive and in the stating of feelings in creative writing.

The teachers all felt the evaluation procedures to be good in that "they allowed for originality of expression" and "encouraged pupils to consider different aspects and make the best selections."

The value of the discussions was stated as "very worthwhile" and of "great value". Two points stated were that "they made pupils do some serious thinking as well as exposing them to others' views" and "pupils had a chance to listen to each others' points of view and comments, to think about these, and word their own reply or comment." Interest and motivation of students was stated as "generally good", "very high" and "very high most of the time".

As far as strengths and weaknesses of the program were concerned similar points were expressed by the teachers. "Opportunities to express thoughts", "class involvement and interest", "encouraged decision making and evaluation of pupils' ideas" were stated. Weaknesses included the time limit on topics and the fact that not all pupils could take part in oral discussion. Further comments were added in conclusion which supported the program.

Summary

From the findings gained from classroom recording during the course of the study and teachers' comments as stated following conclusion of the study some observations are presented.

It would appear that the teachers followed the strategies closely. Preference was shown for using the full strategy which involved students in identifying with the feelings and concerns of others. Pertinent facts, viewpoints, oral expression of pupils and their identification with the thoughts and feelings of others were considered important. Discussion and listening techniques were considered valuable and there appeared to be carry over effect to other scholastic areas.

VII. The Three Strategies and Identification of Components

The main thrust of the study had to do with the examination of three strategies used in relation to the students' written thoughts and feelings, their verbal responses, their positions on pre, post and post-post forms of a semantic differential, their written reactions following completion of the study and recorded observation. Teacher comments and reactions were also considered to establish the effectiveness of the strategies used.

Students' written assertions with respect to the four value issues were summarized in a number of descriptive tables. It was shown that the cognitive-affective strategy had an apparent superiority in categories of conditional, supported response and supported preference as well as in statements of identification. The possible strengths of using this strategy also appeared apparent when all classes clarified the fourth issue utilizing the cognitive-affective strategy. This would appear to indicate that cognitive-affective linkage is important in the clarification of any issue, and that without affective components the strategy used may be less effective.

Verbal responses of students as recorded in interviews conducted by the observer provided additional information which was summarized in the chapter. It appeared that a cognitive base in the form of providing relevant factual information was important. An affective sharing of ideas appeared a favoured component in the strategy. The students also appeared to appreciate the opportunity for this sharing which made the role of the teacher and the classroom climate essential factors to be considered. Cognitive-affective linkage would appear to be supported by the verbal responses of students.

Results of the evaluation of students' positions on value topics as measured by Pre, Post and Post-Post semantic differential forms suggested further conclusions. The stability of ones' value positions with respect to the different value topics was apparent throughout the length of the study. The nature of the topics themselves may have been instrumental in contributing to small shifts in positions that appeared to occur. The teacher's personality, manner, rapport with students, and unique individuality were obviously important factors. Whilst the advantages of the cognitive-affective strategy were by no means clear the use of it did appear to be a contributing factor in recording shifts from initial positions. When all three classes used the strategy with the same topic consistency of results was apparent, as indicated by the profiles and difference scores.

Information gained from students' written reactions following completion of the study appeared to substantiate previous findings but some additional findings were apparent. Sharing the feelings of others, listening, contributing to the discussion, besides learning from facts, information and written viewpoints appeared to be positive components of the program. Much of the social interaction in the classroom which involved sharing of ideas and feelings appeared to gain strong positive support by the pupils.

Information gained from classroom observation appeared to indicate that the teachers were closely following the particular strategies. When the cognitive-affective strategy was used it appeared that more time was needed in the class to involve the expression of feelings of the students. However, all three teachers preferred this strategy over the other two. The teachers also supported the components of this strategy. Pertinent facts, viewpoints, oral expression of pupils, expressing of feelings, identification with the concerns and feelings of others and the developing of listening skills were regarded as important. The affective side of the strategy was highly supported by teacher comments.

In Chapter Five a summary, conclusions, implications and recommendations for further research are presented.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, QUESTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

I. Summary

There exists at the present time at least two important suggestions for changes in social studies programs in the schools. One change is concerned with the departure of the teacher dominated form of instruction. This change involves the student more as an active decision maker integrating cognitive skills and affective concerns, whereby using carefully selected materials and in interaction with his peers he makes a variety of tentative decisions and conclusions. A second change is concerned with the lessening of emphasis on traditional study of broad topics as set down in provincial curricula. This change involves dealing with current topics which are in the limelight and are of interest and concern to the students and adults alike. This kind of input into the social studies program is intended to provide a pertinence, meaning and vitality, enlivening interests, and activating the minds of young people.

It was with these changes and challenges in mind that the investigator designed the study which has been reported. A search was made for a process that would be useful for young students in the clarification of value issues. Three strategies were implemented where students clarified value issues of concern to them. The cognitive strategy stressed a problem solving inquiry procedure with a minimum of subjective judgment. For this strategy the teacher asked questions of a factual nature seeking a cognitive reaction from students. The open strategy allowed pupils to pursue their clarification with a minimum of teacher direction. In this approach the students were free to clarify the topic without any direct instructional questionning by the teacher. The cognitive-affective strategy involved the integration of cognitive and affective type questions in addition to those in the cognitive strategy.

Value issue topics were selected on the basis of suitability and probable unfamiliarity to the subjects. They were presented to three groups of subjects using alternately three different strategies except for the final week when all three groups used the cognitive-affective strategy with the same value issue.

The materials were prepared on each value issue and modifications were made during the course of the pilot study. Similarly some modifications were made to some of the strategy level questions that were used. Teachers involved in the study were observers during the course of the pilot study and refining of the instructional and instrumentation procedures was made during this time.

The grade five classrooms that were used in the study were in the same socio-economic district in south-west Edmonton. All classes were in open area team-teaching arrangements.

A variety of student outcomes was analyzed. Since the main purpose of the study was to suggest components that would comprise a viable teaching-learning strategy by which students would be assisted in the clarification of value issues the investigator gained a variety of information on a continuous basis throughout the course of study. Students' daily written thoughts, verbal responses, positions on pre, post and post-post forms of a semantic differential, information from questionnaires and classroom observation were utilized. In addition, the reactions of the teachers who participated in the study were also considered.

The investigator carefully scrutinized the students' daily written thoughts in order to recognize some common components, and to develop some categorization system to assist in the coding and subsequent analysis of these written thoughts. The investigator realized the arbitrariness of the scheme that was arrived at, and the degree of overlap between cognitive and affective statements. Some similarity was noted with the system devised and other methods of formulation. A system for coding students' written assertions was developed with the aid of judges. In addition to the factual and valuative assertions the students' written thoughts were also checked for identification. Students' verbal responses regarding the value issues were recorded during individually conducted interviews which were conducted by the investigator. The questions that were used by the investigator related to the purposes of the study and were basically the same for each interview conducted.

The semantic differential technique (S.D.) was utilized to measure the meaning that each value topic conveyed to the students at three different stages. The use of a valid instrument was established prior to the beginning of the pilot study. With the aid of computer programs supplied by the Division of Educational Research of the Faculty of Education, University of Alberta tables and profiles were prepared. In addition a difference score technique was used to show the nature and degree of shift on each bi-polar adjective pair for the four value topics.

Further information was gained from questionnaires completed by the students following the study, from classroom observations and recording, as well as reactions from the teachers who participated in the study.

The secondary purposes implicit in the major purpose of the study were related to the variety of student outcomes analyzed. Three teaching-learning strategies were used with classes of grade five pupils where they were encouraged to respond in a variety of ways to certain value issue situations. An attempt was made to identify components or elements from the strategies that appeared to have relevance for students. By analyzing the interaction between the students and the strategies, value issues and materials, a process for clarification of students' written responses was formulated. Students' positions with respect to each of the value issues were determined. Questions forming the basis for further investigations utilizing cognitive, cognitive-affective and open strategies with elementary school children were proposed.

Three problems that were related to these purposes were also investigated. The first involved the use of the cognitive-affective strategy. The investigator wished to gain some indications concerning the use of this strategy in terms of number of factual and valuative statements as well as indications of identification made by students. The second problem was concerned with the interest displayed by students in the program as well as its relevance. A third problem concerned the utilization of group processes to make effective verbal responses. These problems were examined in the analysis of student outcomes.

Research questions related to these problems and purposes were stated. These were examined during the presentation of results in Chapter IV.

II. Conclusions

A number of tentative conclusions can be drawn from the analysis of the data, and from the observations made during the four week period in which the study was conducted.

It would appear that the students involved were able to utilize three strategies to express in a group and individual way their responses to their interpretation of certain value issue situations. The nature of the written assertions with respect to a particular value issue when teachers were using cognitive, cognitive-affective and open strategies did not appear to show clear cut distinctions.

The conclusions reached from the analysis of students' written assertions are noted as follows:

1. In using the cognitive strategy there was a trend for a high percentage of assertions to be in the preference category.
2. In the open strategy no apparent trends were evident with respect to a high number of assertions in any one category.
3. In the cognitive-affective strategy conditional, response, supported response and supported preference assertions appeared high overall, but this did not always hold true when teachers and the value issues were each considered.
4. In identification statements the cognitive-affective strategy gained the higher percentage of students' written assertions irrespective of the particular value issue and the teacher.
5. It was apparent from the categorization of students' written assertions that the nature of the value issue itself was a determining factor. In Issue I general assertions ranked high, in Issue II particular assertions and supported responses, whilst in Issue III preference assertions.
6. It appeared that value issues that were more closely related to the experiences of the students elicited a wider variety of students' written assertions. When students' feelings were aroused to a higher degree a higher percentage of preference assertions and a low percentage of factual assertions seemed to result.

7. The teacher and classroom climate were important variables. Teacher A ranked high in particular, general and supported response assertions, but in all cases this did not hold true with each strategy used and the value issue that was clarified. Teacher B similarly ranked high in conditional and preference statements, but in supported preference and identification assertions she ranked high irrespective of the strategy used or the value issue that was clarified. Teacher C ranked high in response assertions irrespective of strategy of value issue.
8. When all teachers used the cognitive-affective strategy with Value Issue IV there appeared an approximately two to one ratio of response to supported response and preference to supported preference assertions in all classes. The percentage of assertions in the general, preference, supported preference and identification categories were also relatively uniform in all classes.

From these conclusions the following suggestions are made:

1. Cognitive-affective linkage at all strategy levels would seem to be favoured in contributing to pupils making conditional and supportive valuative statements. This suggests that components of a teaching learning strategy include such linkage when clarification of value issues is attempted in the classroom.
2. It would appear important that pupils be able to

genuinely state a variety of identification type statements. Whilst no firm conclusions can be made regarding the superiority of the cognitive-affective strategy in this respect, trends point to the superiority of this strategy in contributing to the expression of such statements.

3. It would appear imperative that students give support to the valuative statements they make. Whilst definite conclusions again cannot be made regarding the superiority of the cognitive-affective strategy, trends again indicate that the integration of cognitive skills and affective concerns assists pupils in making these statements.
4. The pertinence of value issues seems to be related to pupils' experiential background and relevance for them at the time. This suggests that the selection of value issues for clarification be determined in consultation with the pupils themselves.

Students' verbal responses as recorded by means of the interview method support further components that could be included in a teaching learning strategy. The conclusions reached from the analysis of the students' verbal responses are presented.

1. The provision of a cognitive base in the form of relevant information, pertinent facts and figures would appear important for value clarification.
2. A variety of provided viewpoints appeared necessary to

assist in the integration of cognitive skills and affective concerns.

3. It appears that the teacher's role as a guide in the discussion is most important, assisting in the clarification of meanings and encouraging pupils to express their thoughts and feelings.
4. An affective sharing of ideas seemed an important component of the program's success, assisting in continued interest.
5. A classroom climate conducive to mutual sharing and discussion of ideas appeared necessary for value clarification to be successful.

From these conclusions the following suggestions are made:

1. It would seem that the provision of information, facts and figures and viewpoints is largely the responsibility of the teacher. However, with the teacher as a guide students might well assist in the provision of this material.
2. The role of the teacher as a guide rather than as a participator in the classroom clarification appeared to be appreciated by the pupils. The fact that the teacher followed this role appeared instrumental in providing the classroom climate that was conducive to an affective sharing of ideas.
3. Responses from the students that were interviewed showed a high interest level, the novelty of the program

indicating a Hawthorne effect.

Conclusions resulting from the evaluation of students' positions on value topics as measured by pre, post and post-post semantic differential forms provide specific information on students' positions, and on the nature of attitude change. These conclusions are noted as follows:

1. The apparent stability of overall positions was shown by profiles and mean scores on the semantic differential at three points in time. However, this was expected as the value clarification procedures did not attempt to influence the students in any particular direction. It was expected, however that the cognitive-affective strategy would be associated with shifts in positions as measured by the Difference Scores which would be more than with the cognitive and open strategies.
2. It appeared that the nature of the value topics and the related issues were instrumental in contributing towards some modification of students' positions.
3. The advantages of the cognitive-affective strategy were by no means clear. However, in Value Topic II the classroom using this strategy recorded the greater shifts as indicated in the profile, and in difference scores. In Value Topic III the classroom using this strategy recorded the greater difference scores. In Value Topic IV when all classes used the cognitive-affective strategy difference scores in all classes were somewhat consistent

and considerably in excess of those in the non-treatment class.

4. It was apparent that where the teacher had established a high degree of rapport with her students, creating a classroom climate conducive to student interaction with herself as a guide, that students were more likely to freely accept and adopt other positions.
5. It was noted that where there appeared to be apparent shifts in profile positions from pre to post scores, post-post scores indicated a shift towards initial positions.

From these conclusions the following suggestions and observations are made:

1. Whilst it could be said that the profiles implied a stability of attitudes the nature of the difference scores suggested departures from initial positions. The cognitive-affective strategy was associated with higher totals in difference scores which would seem to indicate that it was at least to some degree instrumental in fostering modifications from initial positions.
2. It was observed that the pertinence of the value issue for the students appeared to be associated with greater modifications of positions as shown on the profiles and higher totals of difference scores. This would suggest once again that issues dealt with in the classroom have significance and real importance for the students.

3. It is suggested that teachers endeavour to establish a classroom atmosphere that allows students to freely interact. It would seem that if students cannot clarify their own positions in relation to examining and considering others that little modification or questioning of their own positions will occur.
4. It is suggested that pupils use their own profiles to examine and evaluate their own positions from time to time.

From the findings gained from students' written reactions following completion of the study some tentative conclusions are presented.

1. It appeared that student interest was high, and new ideas were gained through the sharing of thoughts in discussion and in the information that was utilized.
2. It could be concluded that pupils can deal effectively with topics that might initially appear to be somewhat abstract. However, the first two value topics which dealt with information that was within the immediate environment of the students' interests seemed to be favoured slightly over the latter two topics.
3. A higher percentage of expression of feelings was associated with the cognitive-affective strategy. The overall majority of students felt that the expression of feelings assisted in the clarification of the topics.
4. The sharing of thoughts and viewpoints, the discovery

of new facts and information, and the personal experiences as described in the written viewpoints were considered important in causing ideas to change.

5. Students ranked highly learning from the viewpoints of others in the class, listening to all the ideas being discussed and learning from the viewpoints on the papers.

From these conclusions the following suggestions and observations are made:

1. It would seem essential that student interest be initially high, and be maintained throughout the clarification of the particular issues. What might initially appear as abstract topics for students might be utilized, provided that some personal identification be established with the integration of cognitive skills and affective concerns.
2. It was apparent that whatever teaching-learning strategy the teacher was using the expression of feelings was involved. However, when the cognitive-affective strategy was used the expression of feeling was facilitated to a higher degree.
3. The item "Listening to all the ideas being discussed" had not been indicated in the other findings. However, since students enjoyed "learning from the viewpoints of other students" in the class, the development of listening skills would seem to be essential.

Being an exploratory study it was not the intent of the investigator to reach definite conclusions, but rather to suggest some tentative ones and at the same time indicating trends, making observations and suggestions which would provide the basis for further research. The major purpose was to indicate components of a teaching learning strategy that might be identified to assist learners in the clarification of value issues.

III. Questions and Recommendations for Further Research

One of the secondary purposes implicit in the major purpose of the study was to generate questions which could form the basis for further investigation of utilizing cognitive, cognitive-affective and open strategies in clarifying value issues. These have been raised at appropriate places throughout Chapter IV in the reporting of specific findings. It would appear that many of these questions could form the basis of needed research in value clarification.

Some of the questions raised from the findings of students' daily written assertions were:

Are higher I.Q. students more receptive to value clarification?

Will the use of the cognitive strategy limit the range of written assertions?

Will the use of the cognitive-affective strategy result in written assertions that fall into categories of conditional, supported response, response, and supported preference more consistently than when other strategies are used?

Will the use of the cognitive-affective strategy result in a higher number of identification assertions more consistently than when other strategies are used?

To what extent does the value issue itself influence the nature of students' written assertions?

To what extent do classroom climate and pupil-teacher relationships act as major determiners in the nature of students' written assertions and verbal responses when clarifying a value issue?

Will the use of the cognitive-affective strategy in the clarification of value issues lead students to justify the responses and preferences that they make more consistently?

Some of the questions raised from students' verbal responses as recorded in interviews were:

To what extent is the affective sharing of ideas among students important for value clarification of a particular issue?

In what ways can a climate conducive to mutual sharing and discussion of ideas be developed in the classroom?

In what ways should the cognitive base in the form of relevant information, facts and statistics be collected?

In what ways can the teacher effectively be a guide in the implementation of strategies for the purpose of value clarification?

Some of the questions raised from students' positions on value topics as measured by pre, post and post-post semantic differential forms were:

To what extent is the value topic and issue itself a factor in influencing changed positions and viewpoints for students?

Is the cognitive-affective strategy the preferred one to assist in the clarification of value issues as measured by a variety of techniques?

In value clarification is there a tendency towards intermediate positions when students initially adopt some clearly positive or negative positions?

Is there a tendency when shifts in position on the semantic differential seem to occur following clarification, that students later return to their formerly held positions?

Some of the questions raised from students' written reactions following completion of the study were:

Is there a noticeable relationship between the ability of students to express their personal feelings and I.Q. level?

Is the mutual sharing of viewpoints more conducive to the clarification of ideas and feelings when using the cognitive-affective strategy in comparison to other strategies?

To what extent are the skills of listening important for value clarification and attitudinal change?

Does the use of the cognitive-affective strategy assist in the freer expression of feelings and in integrating cognitive skills and affective concerns? To what extent are the other strategies effective?

Whilst many of these questions were brought out in the course of the presentation of the results very few were specifically answered in this exploratory study. Tentative conclusions were suggested. Several trends were indicated throughout the presentation of results in Chapter IV. It would seem that additional exploratory work is needed in value clarification, especially in the use of specified strategies which involve the integration of affective concerns. Carefully designed experimental studies could probe more deeply into some of the questions that have been raised, such as the effectiveness of the cognitive-affective strategy in comparison to other strategies, and the importance of the expression and clarification of affective concerns.

However, in spite of the many unanswered questions the following recommendations are presented in light of the findings of this exploratory study.

1. The process of active decision making, integrating cognitive skills and affective concerns in the clarification of pertinent value issues would appear to be an essential ingredient of a social studies program.
2. The overall superiority of the cognitive-affective strategy as indicated in students' written assertions in the categories of conditional, supported response and supported preference, and identification statements would indicate that this strategy may be instrumental in encouraging students to examine the consequences of their thoughts and feelings, and realize some concern or commitment over the thoughts and feelings of others. It is suggested that the levels of this strategy be

considered by teachers when involving students in the clarification of value issues.

3. It is recommended that teachers consider using the categorization system for developing students' written statements.
4. It is suggested that the provision of pertinent information in the form of facts, figures, rules and procedures be utilized carefully before asking students to clarify their decisions. Similarly a variety of viewpoints could be clarified before discussion of their own personal thoughts and feelings are brought out.
5. It is recommended that the role of the teacher as a guide and facilitator in the clarification procedure be established. This appears particularly important when students are engaged in affective sharing of ideas.
6. It is recommended that the semantic differential forms be utilized by teachers as a means to gauge the positions of students on pertinent value issues at appropriate time periods, and that they also be utilized as a means of student self-evaluation.
7. Overall students' reactions favoured sharing of thoughts and viewpoints, listening to the viewpoints of others, discovery of new facts and information and gaining views from written viewpoints. It is therefore recommended that a value clarification procedure consider utilizing these components.

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APPENDIX A

WRITTEN INFORMATION FOR VALUE TOPICS

VALUE TOPIC I

SNOWMOBILES

STATUTES OF THE PROVINCE OF ALBERTA

SNOW VEHICLES ACT

July 1, 1969

Important Points of the Act

1. All vehicles must be registered.
2. Regulations
   (a) Vehicles cannot be operated on the roadway, parking lane, or sidewalk portions of a highway unless allowed by the council or a district by the passing of a by-law.
   (b) Vehicles may cross a highway, roadway, or parking lane if:
      (1) The vehicle stops before crossing.
      (2) Passengers walk across.
      (3) The right of way to all traffic is given.
      (4) The vehicle crosses by the shortest route.
   (c) Infractions (or breaking of) of regulations 2 (b) are liable to the following fines.
      First Offence - $50 or 30 days imprisonment.
      Second Offence - $100 or 100 days in prison.
   (d) Operating a vehicle without due care and attention and consideration for persons or property is liable to a fine of not more than $1000 or 6 months, or 6 months without the option of a fine.
   (e) All accidents are to be reported if personal injuries are involved, and if property damage is more than $100.

SNOWMOBILES

PROVINCE OF ALBERTA (R. C. M. P. FIGURES)

Registrations	1970	17,500
	1971	24,500
Reported Accidents	1970	53
	1971	48
Reported Injuries	1970	47
	1971	33
Deaths	1969	0
	1970	0
	1971	0

Youth, 14, Killed in Snowmobile Collision

Edmonton Journal, 19th February, 1972

A 14 year old Sherwood Park district youth was killed instantly Sunday when the snowmobile he was operating collided head-on with another.

Kevin Gramlich died in the accident, which occurred in a field five miles east of Sherwood Park.

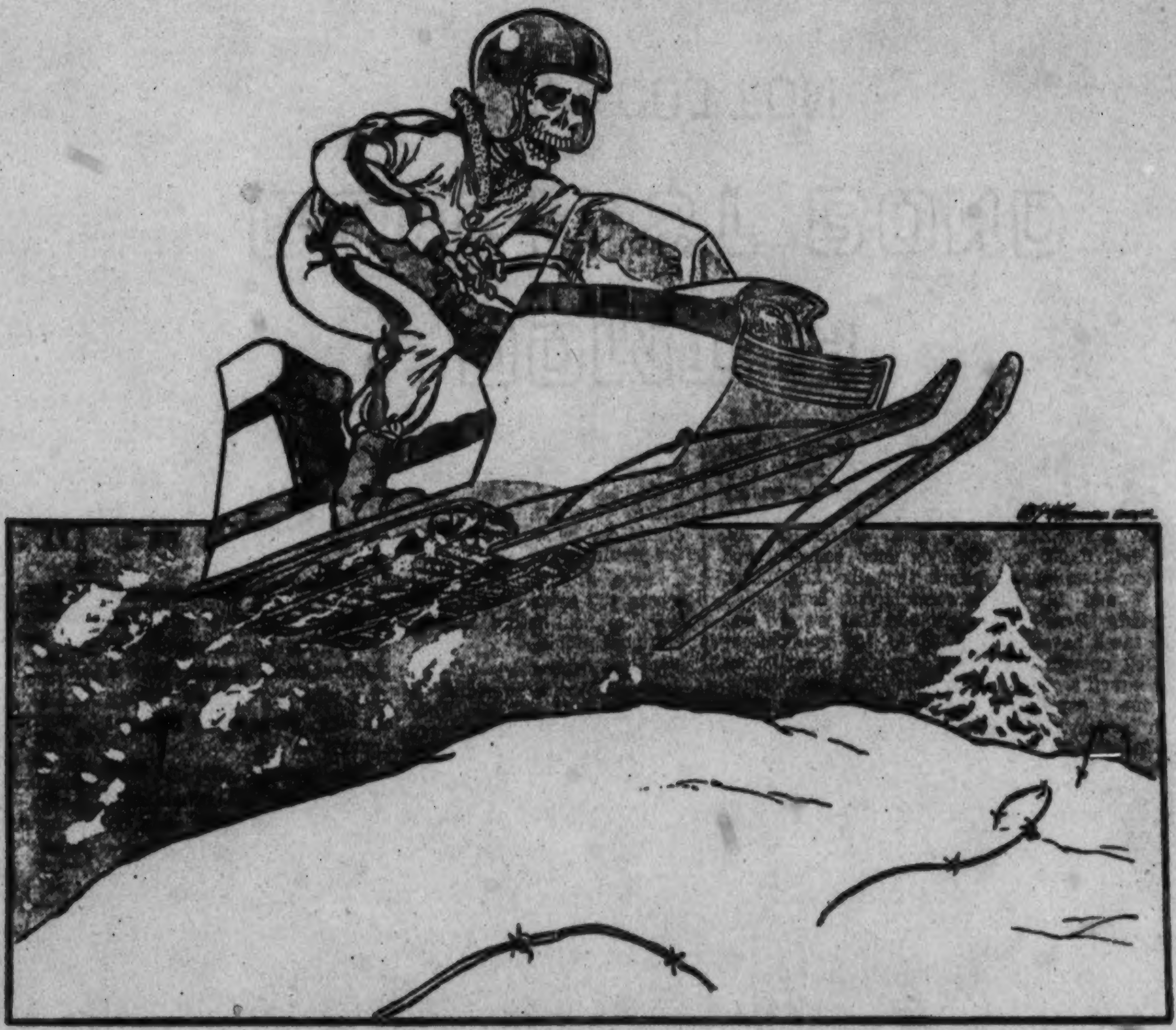
R.C.M.P. have not identified the driver of the other snowmobile. Also a juvenile, he was treated for lacerations at University Hospital and released.

R.C.M.P. say the two snowmobiles collided at the top of a snowdrift covering a fence line. The height of the drift apparently obscured the vision of both drivers.

Kevin is the son of Mr. and Mrs. Simon Gramlich, who live on a farm approximately six miles east of Sherwood Park.

Kevin and the other snowmobile driver were discovered about 4:45 p.m. by other snowmobilers in the area.

SNOWMOBILE PHENOMENON MILLION-DOLLAR BUSINESS



Uneasy rider

VIEWPOINTS

(1)

We are being increasingly annoyed by the noise, pollution and pressures from new and unnecessary technological play-things and gadgets, and there are fewer and fewer areas which can offer a little quietness, peacefulness and a chance to be with nature.

The snowmobiler cannot help but leave a trail of irritation behind him whenever he enters a wilderness area. His din and fumes blast the country peacefulness like a truck horn at 4 a.m.

The same holds true for power boats on wilderness lakes. A good example is Astotin Lake in Elk Island National Park. If there ever was a body of water which does not need a horde of deafening, polluting speedboats on it, it is this nature lake which is the home of waders, shorebirds, waterfowl, gulls, terns, muskrat and beaver.

What is needed is legislation to define special snowmobiler areas.

R. A. Huth
143rd Street.

Edmonton Journal
January 14, 1972

(2)

SNOWMOBILE IS KING IN FORT MCMURRAY

By Andy Ogle, of The Journal

Fort McMurray, February 3, 1972

They will never replace cars, but in the winter, the snowmobile is king in this northern Alberta town.

Enthusiasts here say Fort McMurray probably has more snowmobiles per head of population than any other Alberta center.

"I do not think anyone has ever made an exact count, but I started thinking about the families on my block and realized about every second household had at least one and some two or more," said E. A. O'Brien, publicity director for the 'Snow-Trakers', a local snowmobile club.

"The snowmobile has given us a lot of freedom," says Mr. O'Brien. "It sure makes the winter a lot shorter".

But the snowmobile has not yet completely replaced the more traditional means of northern transportation -- the dog sled.

VIEWPOINTS

(3)

CITY DOCTOR DECLARES. . .

'SNOWMOBILING INCREASES TENSION'

By Otto Schaefer, M. D. Edmonton Journal
135th Street January 15, 1972

There are a few points which should be stressed and are usually completely overlooked in the discussion of snowmobiles.

Most snowmobiles are for recreational use, and the general public appear to place snowmobiling in the same class as other winter sports such as cross-country and downhill skiing, skating and snowshoe-hiking. With this in mind the snowmobilers claim a right for public facilities similar to those provided, such as for skaters.

There is a need for city people to have muscular workout and contact with nature. There is a need for public facilities for participating rather than spectator sport activities. These sports do not need costly machines. Driving snowmobiles does not relax, but increases stress and tension. The drivers are sitting behind the steering wheel. The fuel meant for their muscles clogs up their arteries. The person gets "worked up" but has no muscular "work out." This is not "sport" or "relaxation".

License fees for snowmobiles should be considerably increased, while public facilities should not be.

VALUE TOPIC II

HITCHHIKING

CITY OF EDMONTON

TRAFFIC AND STREETS BY-LAWS

By-law 3100

Section 406 Hitchhiking Taffic Tag Penalty $2.00	No person shall stand upon or walk along a roadway for the purpose of soliciting a ride from the driver of any vehicle.

(Feb. 1968)

Offences:

Year	Jay Walk Tags	Hitchhiking Tags
1969	4263	Included in Jay Walk
1970	4189	252
1971	4679	156

CITY OF EDMONTON

PEDESTRIAN SAFETY INVENTORY

(1967-1970)

	1967	1968	1969	1970
(1) Pedestrians Killed In Traffic	11	10	8	13
(2) Total Persons Killed In Traffic (Including Pedestrians)	26	36	34	33
(3) Pedestrians Injured In Traffic	382	420	415	510
(4) Total Persons Injured In Traffic (Including Pedestrians)	2057	2515	2617	2876

Estimated 1970 City Population - 435,503

Estimated 1970 City Metropolitan Population - 470,000

PROVINCE OF ALBERTA

HIGHWAY TRAFFIC ACT

1967

PART 9. PEDESTRIANS

Pedestrians on roadway

(1) Where a sidewalk or path is located beside a roadway, a pedestrian shall use it and not walk or remain on the roadway.

(2) Where there is no sidewalk or footpath a pedestrian shall walk only on the left side of the roadway or the shoulder of the highway facing traffic approaching from the opposite direction.

Pedestrians crossing roadway.

(1) Every pedestrian crossing a roadway shall cross as quickly as possible without stopping or loitering or interfering with the free movement of traffic.

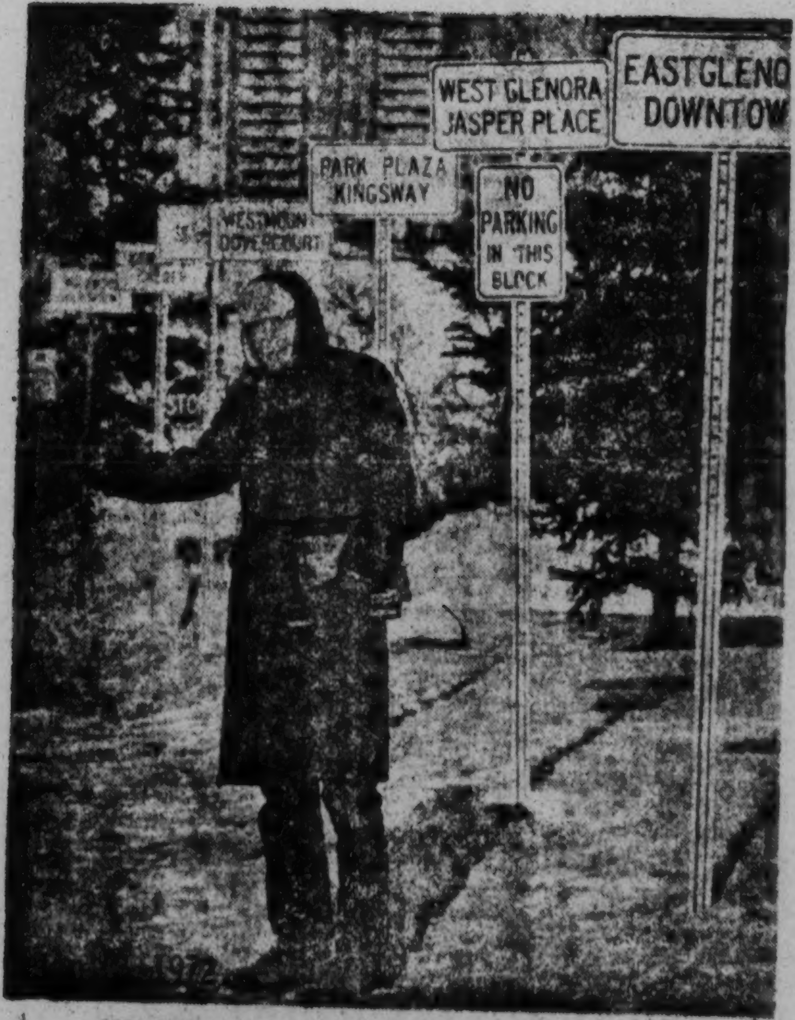
(2) A pedestrian shall not step onto a roadway and walk or run into the path of any vehicle that is so close that it is difficult for the driver to yield the right of way.

Yielding by pedestrian

(1) Every pedestrian crossing a roadway at any point other than a crosswalk shall yield the right of way to vehicles on the roadway.

Pedestrian right of way.

(1) At a place where there is a crosswalk a pedestrian has the right of way over vehicles, but must exercise care for his safety.


WEST GLENORA
JASPER PLACE
EASTGLENO
DOWNTOW
PARK PLAZA
KINGSWAY
NO
PARKING
IN THIS
BLOCK
WESTMOUN
DOVERCOURT
STO
1972

HE MIGHT WAIT A LONG (BR-R-R) TIME
. . . for ride at University of Alberta hitch-hiking zone

VIEWPOINTS

(1) HITCHHIKING

When many people want hitchhiking banned, I find myself wondering what is wrong with the people of Edmonton. The Journal has described the attacks of 18 female hitchhikers. Surely everyone in Edmonton is aware of the fact that hitchhiking for girls is of a risky business. If I were a girl, or the father of one, hitchhiking for her would be taboo.

I have hitchhiked from Toronto to Vancouver, and to Edmonton, and it is a great way to travel when one is short on cash. It is also a highly valuable experience for any young man.

I suggest that girls be discouraged from "thumbing" due to the high number of attacks, or they should be encouraged to show their ability to defend themselves.

If the government does take steps to outlaw hitchhiking, it will be another case of the government doing the thinking the people should be doing for themselves. But worse than that it will be an infringement on the person's right to think for himself.

P. Bruce Annan
105th Street

Edmonton Journal
December 2, 1971

VIEWPOINTS

(2)

I am a University student living at St. Albert with, for the time being, no means of getting to school in the morning other than hitchhiking.

My first lectures on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday are at 8 a.m. so, full of confidence, I set myself up in plain view, relatively neatly dressed, books under my arm, and stuck out my thumb. That was at 7:15 a.m. on Wednesday (Jan. 5) and at 7:45 a.m. I was still there. During the time I was out there, probably 500 cars and trucks, most containing one person, drove past.

If one of these people could have given me a ride as far as 111th Avenue, my chances of getting a ride from there to the University would have been good. As it was I missed my first 8 a.m. lecture of the New Year.

Was it only a few days ago that people were wishing each other peace and good-will?

T. C. Leslie-Spinks
St. Albert Trail

Edmonton Journal
January 26, 1972

VIEWPOINTS

(3)

I was shocked to read about the incident of the Edmonton man being forced at gunpoint to drive a hitchhiker to Vancouver. Teenage girls are being attacked while hitchhiking late at night. Hitchhikers are getting injured when struck down through not being visible while standing on the roadside.

I see the need for laws regulating or even banning hitchhiking.

Take heed all you curb-side thumbers. You are a danger to the motoring public as well as yourself. In the past I would occasionally give a young person or a group of downtown-bound girls a lift, but not anymore. Now I refuse to take a chance of getting the one in fifty bad guy.

I suggest:

(1) passing provincial or local by-laws to restrict areas and times hitchhiking is allowed.

(2) have the police spot-check the identifications and destination of hitchhikers.

(3) improve public transportation to stop the need to hitchhike on bus routes.

Edmonton Journal	Ed Banik
January 6, 1972	Squamish, B. C.

VALUE TOPIC III

HUNTING BIG GAME ANIMALS

ALBERTA GAME REGULATIONS

1971

LICENCE FEES	RESIDENTS	NON RESIDENTS
Moose	$ 5	$100
Moose (Zone 1)	5	50
Black Bear	5	25
Elk	5	100
Mountain Sheep	10	200
Whitetail Deer	3	50
Mule Deer	5	50
Caribou	10	100
Grizzly Bear	10	200
Bird Game	2.50	50
Cougar	25	75

Licence Qualifications:

(1) A person who had not attained his fourteenth (14th) birthday cannot obtain a licence under any circumstances.

(2) A person who has not attained his 16th birthday cannot hunt big game unless he is accompanied by his parent or legal guardian, or by a person 18 years of age or over who is authorized in writing by the parent or legal guardian.

PROHIBITIONS

It is Unlawful to:

(1) Hunt any wildlife on occupied lands or enter these lands without the consent of the owner or occupant.

(2) Not to attach the proper "Big Game Tag" securely to the animals by the person who kills it. This must be done immediately after killing it.

(3) Hunt big game unless visibly clothed in a long sleeved coat or jacket and head dress of complete scarlet or blaze orange material.

(4) Carry or have loaded firearms in or on any kind of vehicle. (No live ammunition can be carried in the breech or barrel.)

(5) Discharge any firearm along or across any highway marked with route number signs.

(6) Discharge any firearm from any vehicle, snowmobile powered boat or aircraft.

(7) Discharge a firearm within 200 yards, or cause a bullet to pass within 200 yards of any occupied building.

(8) Hunt any game between one-half hour after sunset and one-half hour before sunrise.

(9) Hunt, kill or molest any big game animal while the animal is in the act of swimming.

(10) Be accompanied by any dog while hunting big game or allow any dog to pursue big game, or run at large in

a district where big game is usually found.

(11) Allow the edible meat of any big game animals excluding cougar, grizzly bear and black bear meat, to be wasted destroyed or spoiled.

It is Unlawful to:

(12) Hunt on Sunday, except in the green area of "Big Game Zone 1).

(13) Hunt outside the specified seasons in the various zones.

(14) Exceed the bag limits for big game.

(15) Hunt in protected wildlife areas and sanctuaries.

(16) Chase, molest, injure or kill any wildlife with a snow vehicle.

(17) Use or attempt to use a snow vehicle for the purpose of hunting of any wildlife between the hours of 12 o'clock midnight and 12 o'clock noon in the eastern half of the Alberta Rocky Mountains from Hinton to Banff.

PROVINCE OF ALBERTA

DEPARTMENT OF LANDS AND FORESTS -- WILDLIFE DIVISION

CONVICTIONS RESULTING FROM BREAKING OF REGULATIONS

HUNTING	1968-69	1969-70
Loaded firearm in motor vehicle	309	401
Illegal possession of game animals	107	121
Hunting in a closed season area	53	75
No licence	50	37

REVENUE (MONEY) FROM BIG GAME LICENCES

1959-60	$517,000	(141,000 licences)
1964-65	$674,000	(295,000 licences)
1969-70	$1,123,000	(354,000 licences)

VIEWPOINTS

(1) HUNTING

I wonder if people who oppose the hunting of wild animals know what happens to some domestic animals before they get to the supermarket where people buy their meat.

I believe in controlled hunting as long as the wild animals are harvested properly. If these animals were not thinned out on their winter ranges, they would starve to death like the animals in Elk Island Park.

If farmers and ranchers overstocked their grazing land and never kept watch on the livestock, they would not be in business very long.

Jack Smith
95th Street

Edmonton Journal
April 29, 1971

(2) CONSERVATION

I would like to suggest that Canada ban hunting for five or more years and from then on, screen applicants for hunting permits (foreign) very carefully.

Whatever money you may gain is not worth the cost in slaughtered game and the reason our hunters are up there hunting is because the same thing has happened to our game years ago.

Somehow we must learn to put back as much as we take out if we expect to go on hunting, but it seems impossible to learn for some. Far too many the idea is to get, whether game, money or whatever. Anything to change this outlook is a step in the right direction.

Roy W. Sheldou
Shelton, Washington (USA)

Edmonton Journal
December 28, 1971

VIEWPOINTS

(3) HUNTING

Wildlife everywhere is coming under increasing pressure from man's so-called progress. Because moose are plentiful in northern Alberta American hunters have been allowed to shoot them freely. Is this really necessary? The moose is a food source for much of our native population as well as people living in outlying areas. It is also a game animal prized by many Alberta hunters.

If foreign hunters are allowed to come in for moose hunting, measures must be taken to control the unnecessary killing and breaking of regulations. These measures should:

(1) increase licence fees for foreign hunters.

(2) require successful foreign hunters to pay an additional trophy fee for each animal.

(3) limit hunting periods for these hunters.

(4) establish a quota on the number of alien non-resident (foreign) hunters each season.

(5) require all foreign hunters to check in and check out at an established registry.

(6) increase penalties for those who break any regulation with higher fines, jail terms and seizing of vehicles and equipment.

All concerned citizens should bring their thoughts on this matter to their elected officials, who are in the position to correct a very undesirable situation.

D. G. MacGregor

83rd Avenue

Edmonton Journal

December 1, 1971

5

VALUE TOPIC IV

CAPITAL PUNISHMENT

CAPITAL PUNISHMENT -- THE DEATH PENALTY FOR MURDER

(1) In March and April of 1966 the Canadian House of Commons (Federal Government of Canada) debated a motion which read "that the criminal code of Canada be changed to:

(a) abolish the death penalty for all offences.

(b) to replace it with a sentence of life imprisonment in all cases where the death penalty is in effect."

The motion was defeated, even though it was debated at great length.

(2) In December of 1967 the Canadian House of Commons agreed that for a period of five years the death penalty would be restricted to those found guilty of killing a policeman or prison guard. This trial or experimental period ends in December 1972.

(3) Nearly all countries of Africa and Asia use the death penalty. North America remains altogether rather in favour of it. In the USA (1967) 42 out of 50 states still had the death penalty. However, it is not always carried out. California is the most recent state to abolish it. South American countries have largely abolished the death penalty. In Europe it is used only in eastern countries, and in the western european countries of Spain, France, Ireland and Great Britain.

DEATH SENTENCES AND EXECUTIONS (1956-1965)

NORTH AMERICA	DEATH SENTENCES	EXECUTIONS	DEATH SENTENCES	EXECUTIONS
	(1956-1960)		(1961-1965)	
(1) Canada	59	16	55	4
(2) U. S. A.		219	491	132
EUROPE				
(3) France	33	11	34	6
(4) Great Britain	100	28	22	12
ASIA				
(5) Japan		126	106	48
AFRICA				
(6) Nigeria	590	291	261	191

Only a few countries have provided information to the United Nations for the two periods of time 1956-1960 and 1961-1965.

BRING BACK HANGING URGE LETTERS TO GOVERNMENT

By Ben Tierney
Southam News Services
Ottawa-reported in
THE JOURNAL-December 15, 1971

The Government of Canada is under increasing pressure to bring back hanging as a punishment for non-capital murder.

In recent months letters for restoring capital punishment have been coming into the Justice Department at an average rate of 50 a week. This is much above what is considered normal, and it has been on the increase for more than a year.

The letters are coming from all parts of Canada, and, as a rule, are from Canadians aged 50 and over.

About one out of every ten letters reaching the Justice Department are in favour of bringing back capital punishment. Since the beginning of the 5 year experimental period (Dec. 1967) four men found guilty of the murder of a police officer have, consequently been sentenced to death. Three of the four have had their sentences commuted to life imprisonment. The fourth will have his case reviewed before the execution date in March 1972.

VIEWPOINTS

(2)

'DEATH PENALTY NOT A DETERRENT'

By George Harsh

Reported in The Journal - January 29th, 1972

I have talked with over a hundred murderers. I have slept alongside them. I have eaten with them, laughed and cried with them, and spent six months in the death cells with many of them.

I am a convicted murderer.

While still in my teens I was convicted of a senseless crime, and sentenced to die in the electric chair. This sentence would have been carried out had I not come from a white, rich and important family. As it was I spent 12 years in prison working alongside other murderers. From my experiences I can say that capital punishment is not a deterrent to murder. The large majority of all murders are committed under one of four conditions. (1) It is an act of sudden passion in which the person does not know his actions. (2) It is crime that is carefully planned out, and the person is sure he will not be caught. (3) It is an act of panic done during the carrying out of a lesser crime. (4) It is the act of a mad person whose mind does not realize what is happening.

Stop any 10 people and ask the question, Would you rather be executed or spend the rest of your life in prison? Given the choice most would go for the quick death of execution rather than the slow death of life in prison. So, if there is a deterrent, prison is the greater.

VIEWPOINTS

IN FAVOUR	AGAINST
(1) The death penalty is more effective than imprisonment to stop people from committing murder.	(1) Seeing those who are serving time makes a stronger impression on people than the shock of execution which makes one feel sorry for the criminal.
(2) He who takes life away deserves death - "an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth."	(2) A conqueror who kills his prisoners is a murderer. The law should not allow a man who has killed to be killed himself. One murder is no excuse for another.
(3) Life imprisonment is costly.	(3) Executions are costly.
(4) Many countries still keep the death penalty.	(4) Those countries that have abolished the death penalty do not show a higher rise in crime which were punishable by death.
(5) It is common sense that death is feared more than life imprisonment.	(5) The fear of capture is more important than the death penalty.

APPENDIX B

PROCEDURE AND INSTRUCTIONS FOR CLARIFICATION OF VALUE ISSUES

PROCEDURE AND INSTRUCTIONS

A. Control Groups

(1) These groups receive no experimental treatment.

(2) They complete pre-test forms at the beginning of each week and post-test forms at the end of the week. One month following completion of post-test forms, post-post test forms will be given. These forms are administered to the experimental groups at the same times.

(3) The teachers must not in any way discuss the topics with their classes during this time. They may, however, following completion of the post-post test forms discuss the topics with their classes if they so wish.

B. Experimental Groups

I. The following applies to all three experimental groups.

(1) Pre-test forms are administered at the beginning of each week before any discussion of the topic has taken place.

(2) Post-test forms and post-post test forms are also administered weekly at the same time as in the control groups. Post-test forms are administered at the end of

each week, following completion of "Decision Cards" by the students. Post-post test forms are administered four (4) weeks later, on the Friday.

(3) The problem question is stated and written on the blackboard.

(4) On the first day the basic factual information would be read and clarified with the class, with or without the aid of the overhead projector. Each student will then receive a copy of this information for use during the week's discussion. On the second day the viewpoints of individuals would be similarly read and clarified.

(5) State to the students that they will have half an hour per day to discuss the problem before reaching their own decision on the Friday period. On Monday a slightly longer period is anticipated with 40 minutes seeming more appropriate to allow for pre-testing and clarifying the initial information.

(6) Each period is a student discussion session on the problem with the aim being to reach a clear personal decision about solving the problem.

(7) The teacher must not make any personal judgment on any part of the problem at any stage. The teacher can assist in the understanding of the information that is presented on the first day.

(8) The teacher cannot insert his own questions on the problem. He may, however, repeat student's responses

and questions so that other members of the class understand what is being discussed. The teacher may repeat, rephrase or reclarify student's responses.

(9) Rapport must be established between teacher and students. The teacher, however, cannot become involved in the discussions. The teacher's role to facilitate discussion between students on the problem.

(10) For the last five (5) minutes of each daily period each student completes his "Thought Card". (Monday through Thursday) On the Friday he completes his "Decision Card". On the Thought Card each student would state his own thoughts based on the period's discussion. The Decision Card would include his decision that has been reached on the basis of the discussion periods. These cards would be collected by the teacher at the end of each class period.

(11) Individual students would be interviewed by the researcher. Four students would be interviewed from each class for each value topic. The purpose of the interview would be to get students to express themselves verbally about their clarification of the problem, and to receive some feedback on the kind of social studies activity. On Wednesday students would be interviewed following completion of their thought cards. On Friday they would be interviewed following completion of decision cards and the post-test. It is expected that each

interview would be about ten (10) minutes.

II. The following applies to the specified strategies.

A. OPEN - NO PLANNED STRATEGY

(1) The teacher clarifies the information on the first day and the viewpoints on the second day as in the other experimental groups. Thereafter, discussion is open without strategy level questions. However, on the Monday and Tuesday periods no strategy level questions are followed in contrast to cognitive and cognitive-affective procedures. The procedure must be as open as possible to students facing the problem without teacher interference in the form of imposition of questions and ideas. The teacher's role is to provide the climate for an open discussion facilitating student interaction.

(2) Each period would begin with a review of the previous discussion to ensure some continuity. "What did you discuss yesterday about this issue?" (Approximately 2 minutes) The discussion would follow. Ideas may be listed on the blackboard or on an experience chart daily, and these would be accumulative. No direction would be imposed by the teacher. Time would be called to allow for completion of thought cards and decision cards.

B. COGNITIVE STRATEGY

(1) Each class period is also a student discussion but following a specified procedure.

Day 1 - Monday

(Pre-test)

(Present information)

1. Can you explain the problem?
2. What are some of the important facts from the information you have?

(Thought Card)

Day 2 - Tuesday

1. What are the different points of view in this information?
2. What are the reasons given for each of these different points of view?

(Thought Card)

Day 3 - Wednesday

1. Are there any other points of view that you think should be considered?
2. Which appear most favourable?
3. What would be the results of these points of view?

(Thought Card)

Day 4 - Thursday

1. Which points of view now seem the best from all considered?
2. What are the results of these?

3. Which one seems the best?

(Thought Card)

Day 5 - Friday

1. What action should be taken?
2. What are your main reasons?
3. If you were to study this problem again would you come to the same decision?

(Decision Card)

(Post Test)

(2) The teacher cannot insert his own questions in relation to the problem under discussion, or in place of the strategy level questions. He may, however, repeat or rephrase the strategy level questions to ensure greater understanding. The procedure must be followed as closely as possible, in the clarification of the problem to reaching final decisions. Affective type questions must be minimized in the discussion. The teacher may have to redirect students to the specific cognitive emphasis questions to avoid diversions from the strategy. In following the strategy level questions information would be recorded on the blackboard or on experience charts in the following sequence.

Day 1 - Monday

The Problems	Important Facts

Day 2 - Tuesday

Points of View	Reasons
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

Day 3 - Wednesday

Your viewpoints	Results
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

Day 4 - Thursday

Action	Results
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

Day 5 - Friday

Priority of Action	Reasons
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
Restudy?	

C. COGNITIVE-AFFECTIVE STRATEGY

(1) Each class period is also a student discussion but following a specified procedure.

The procedure is as follows.

Day 1 - Monday

(Pre-test)

(Present information)

1.	Can you explain the problem?	Is the problem important to you?
2.	What are some of the important facts from the information you have?	After looking at the facts how do you feel about the problem?

(Thought Card)

Day 2 - Tuesday

1.	What are the different points of view in this information?	How do you feel about each of the different points of view?
2.	What are the reasons given for each of these different points of view?	How would you feel if you were a person in favour of each one of these?

(Thought Card)

Day 3 - Wednesday

1.	Are there other points of view that you think should be considered?	Explain why you feel these are important?
2.	Which appear most favourable?	Why?
3.	What would be the results of these points of view?	Knowing these results how would you feel if you were a person in favour of each one of these?

(Thought Card)

Day 4 - Thursday

1. Which points of view now seem the best from all considered?	Do you feel happy with your choices?
2. What are the results of these?	How do you feel about your decisions?
3. Which one seems the best?	How is it important to you?

(Thought Card)

Day 5 - Friday

1. What action should be taken?	How do you feel about this action?
2. What are your main reasons?	Has this action changed the way you feel about this problem?
3. If you were to study this problem again would you come to the same decision?	Do you feel differently than at the beginning when you started thinking about the problem?

(Decision Card)

(Post-test)

The same charts would be used as in the Cognitive Strategy with the addition of feelings on the right hand side of each.

(2) The teacher cannot insert his own questions in relation to the problem under discussion, or in place of the strategy level questions. He may, however, repeat or rephrase the strategy level questions to ensure greater understanding. The procedure must be followed as closely as possible in the classification

of the problem to reaching final decisions. Questions of cognitive emphasis should receive equal emphasis and time in comparison to questions of affective emphasis. This strategy uses half of its time to questions of cognitive emphasis and half to questions of affective emphasis. Student interaction (questions and responses) should balance as equally as possible cognitive and affect. The teacher may have to redirect students to the specific strategy level questions to avoid diversions.

APPENDIX C

TEACHER TALK IN SELECTED CLASSROOMS

Sample 1

Topic: Hunting Big Game Animals
Day: fifth (final day)
Cognitive Strategy

"We've looked at different points of view and the results of these viewpoints. Let's look at the actions that should be taken and the reasons for them."

"What would be one type of action?"

"You consider banning......."

"Another kind of action we've talked about..."

"Various changes in licences."

"Another kind of action?"

"Let's look at these, and what we're going to consider today is a priority of action. What does this mean?"

"Which of these actions would you think you'd like to see take place first?"

"Banning..."

"What do you think the results of that would be?"

"Would there be any other result?"

"Would there be any other results besides increasing them and the problem of overpopulation?"

"With banning for five years would there be any other results?"

"Nancy..."

"What are your reasons for the five year period?"

"Could we consider some other way besides banning for five years?"

"Why?"

"You would ban hunting for three years..."

"What are your reasons for that?"

"Yes..."

"Are there any other results that would happen if we banned them for three years, just to foreigners?"

"David..."

"You think it would lead to conflict...and we may not have heard the latter part of that...Would you say that again?"

"You think there would be an overkill period..."

"Yes..."

"Any other results that would happen if we banned hunting for three years to non-residents?"

"Why do you think that?"

"What would be the result?"

"Can we look at some other action that should be taken..."

"Yes..."

"Yes..."

"Setting up of protective zones... You'd ban areas where certain kinds of animals are decreasing in number...."

"What would happen then?"

"Are there any other courses of action?"

"Yes..."

"Age limits."

"What would your reasons be?"

"Yes..."

"Each person would have to know how to hunt. . . and they could go out only if they could prove they could do this. . . "

"What do you think might happen?"

"Yes..."

"You think there might be more accidents and more rules broken?"

"Yes."

"You say that maturity and strength are important. . ."

"You have other actions I see, but we'll take our decision card now and record our own personal actions about what should be taken."

Sample 2

Topic: Hitchhiking
Day: fifth (final day)
Cognitive Strategy

"Yesterday we talked about the many points of view you developed following our discussion of certain people's viewpoints. Let's review these to help you decide what is the course of action that should be followed."

"Doug. . .yes."

"What is your reason?"

"Do others agree with that?"

"Yes. . ."

"Is there a different action that should be taken from all these?"

"No hitchhiking at all then. . .?"

"What are your reasons?"

"Yes. . .we've mentioned this before. . .that is about more buses and a better transportation system."

"Yes. . ."

"Doug is saying that the law is all right. . ."

"Yes. . ."

"You are saying that the law should be changed?"

"Yes. . . Does hitchhiking sometimes hurt people then..?"

"Yes. . . these are dangers that you've mentioned about the girls. Can you make your reasons clearer then?"

"Yes, Susan."

"Why did we decide it was more dangerous?"

"Is there another reason for this course of action?"

"All right, that's a good point."

"Yes. . .we should be able to defend ourselves then."

"Are there any other reasons about this course of action?"

"Yes. . ."

"Yes. . ., but what is your reason?"

"Milly?"

"Yes. . ."

"Yes."

"Let's listen so we can hear."

"Yes, Gerald."

"Yes, that's another action that might be taken?"

"Stephen. . .yes."

"Hitchhiking in small groups then."

"What would happen then?"

"What are your dangers of going alone?"

"All right."

"Yes, Donna?"

"What are your reasons for the fines?"

"Yes. . . Glen."

"What is your reason then?"

"Yes. . ."

"You think that this course of action would stop people from hitchhiking a ride for no real reasons then?"

"How do others think about this?"

"Yes."

"Is there another course of action?"

"For men only then. . .your reasons?"

"Yes. . ."

"Is it safer?"

"Are there any other reasons about this?"

"That's one reason. . .any others?"

"Yes."

"The question of defence you say is difficult to prove."

"Now you've talked about different course of action so far. . . keeping the regulations the way they are, banning completely or for certain groups of people, and no restrictions at all. We've given reasons for these courses of action."

"We need to come to our final decisions at this point."

"Are there any other courses of action that you would consider after looking at all those we have discussed?"

"Yes, John."

"Yes, could you bring up other reasons for this course of action that we have not discussed?"

"Yes."

"Yes. . ."

"See if you can explain your reason clearly."

"Yes. . ."

"We'll all make our final decisions as to what we think are the best courses of action to be made."

Sample 3

Topic: Capital Punishment
Day: Two
Cognitive-Affective Strategy

"We've been reading different points of view about the death penalty being a deterrent, and not being a deterrent."

"What is the point of view of the first person?"

"Yes."

"What reasons does he give for his point of view?"

"All right. . . Are there any other reasons?"

"Yes."

"If you were George Harsh how would you feel?"

"In any words can you tell me how you think he feels?"

"Yes. . ."

"Yes. . ., that was one of his points."

"What is the point of view of the second person?"

"Yes. . ."

"Yes."

"What are the reasons he gives?"

"Yes."

"Any other?"

"How would you feel if you were that person?"

"You would feel quite helpless. . ."

"Yes, . . ."

"Yes, . . . he says that he committed a senseless crime."

"Do you think he says that?"

"You don't think he felt that way then . . . How do you think he felt?"

"Would that be how you would feel if you were he?"

"Would you feel that lucky?"

"All right, . . ."

"Yes. . ."

"All right. . .., Shannon?"

"Yes."

"Would you feel that way?"

"Yes."

"Let's listen carefully."

"Glen."

"You think that you would feel differently then?"

"Let's look on and try to bring out some different points of view."

"Let's read it carefully."

"All right, . . ., what points of view are being expressed?"

"Yes. . ., is there anything in the information about that?"

"Yes, . . .?"

"This man is having his case reviewed and his execution date is set for March. Let's discuss this point of view about the trial period being extended or not?"

"Yes. . . Debra?"

"Yes. . ., you're wondering about the reasons for some having their sentences commuted and changed to life imprisonment."

"Why do you think this is happening?"

"Yes."

"What are the reasons for this?"

"How would you feel if you were this person?"

"Yes."

"Yes. . ., how would you feel as the other person who was the victim?"

"Yes. . ."

"All right, . . ."

"How would you feel yourself if you wanted to bring capital punishment back?"

"Yes,. . ."

"Yes. . . there's always that chance."

"Yes, . . . you are looking at it from both sides."

"Yes, you don't think the law should be just for prison guards and policemen as other people are important too. What do you think of this point of view?"

"Yes, . . ."

"What are your reasons?"

"Okay, then . . . ., what about ordinary people?"

"This brings out the point of view about importance of one person compared to another?"

"Yes. . .?"

"What do you think the point of view is?"

"What are the reasons then?"

"Do you feel he should be in prison?"

"How would you feel if you were that person?"

"All right. . ., what would you feel?"

"Yes, . . . what do you feel about that?"

"Yes, . . . you're still innocent until proven guilty."

"Yes."

"Are there any other reasons for this point of view that people should be treated equally and be given the same penalty for the same crime?"

"Are there any reasons for this?"

"Yes. . ."

"Yes . . ., you're making a judgment yourself. Is that a point of view from the information?"

"Yes."

"Sharon. . ."

"That's an important point of view."

"Are there reasons given for this?"

"Millie. . ."

"Yes, . . ."

"Let's look at the third page of viewpoints and the reasons that are given."

APPENDIX D

CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM FOR CODING STUDENTS' WRITTEN ASSERTIONS

CODING SYSTEM FOR STUDENTS' WRITTEN ASSERTIONS

Assertions are statements of importance for the students who have expressed them. They represent thoughts on a value issue, that a student has written down following a half hour period. The assertions are cumulative for a five day period, representing the student's thoughts. You are asked to code students' assertions into the described categories. The first three are basically cognitive. The second group of four categories is largely affective. (Factual: 1, 2, 3 - assertions based on specific information that the student has read or observed. Valuative: 4, 5, 6, 7 - assertions based on personal opinion denoting some internalization of thought and feeling.) Those assertions not able to be coded into one of the categories are listed under unclassified.

ASSERTIONS	DEFINITIONS
Particular	Assertion based on facts and information. They refer to specific items of information and may show trends from information and figures the students have looked at.
General	Assertions that are deductions students have made from information. As generalizations they indicate a causal relationship.
Conditjonal	Assertions that are referred to as "if-then" assertions - if a certain action takes place then certain results are likely to occur. These assertions are also deductions but usually longer and more specific than those in general category.
Value Response	Assertions based on the personal feelings of students. They are short, positive, negative or neutral assertions containing a value object (noun-pronoun) and a value term (adjective - adjectival phrase). Examples 1, 2, 3. There are also assertions that denote personal agreement, disagreement, or non-committed concern. (Examples 3 and 4).
Supported Value Response	These assertions are the same as the value responses, but in addition some support is given to justify or clarify the response. They are longer and more specific than the value response.
Value Preference	These assertions, positive, negative or neutral in nature indicate a point of view about what should be done. They indicate a course of action that the student considers to be of importance.
Supported Value Preference	These assertions are the same as the value preferences, but in addition some support is given to justify the preference. A reason is given to clarify the preference. They are longer and more specific than the value preference.

The definitions as stated indicate the scope of meaning denoted by the assertion.

ASSERTIONS	ADDED FACTORS
Particular	Singular statements Simple statements Low cognition level Little generalization or deductive thought.
General	Higher level of cognitive thought. Generalization made Relationship is clear
Conditional	A specified course of action is indicated based on information facts. Distinguished from a preference by choice of words.
Value Response	The value object is being described (V.O.) The value term is the description about the object. (V.T.)
Supported Value Response	Response is supported by reason or example or by added information which supports the response.
Value Preference	A personal course of action desired by the individual.
Supported Value Preference	Preference is supported by a reason or clarification.

Added factors clarify and add to the definitions.

ASSERTIONS	KEY WORDS
Particular	- simple statements - absence of adjectives
General	- cause, result from, etc. - can be, would be, could be, might be (These reduce the valuative emphasis)
Conditional	- use of if . . . then (but either one or other may not be in the assertion) Value terms may be modified by can, could, would, might be, etc. as in general assertions.
Value Response	- use of adjectives or adjectival phrase (V.T.) - use of are, is (verb) - use of it, they (pronoun) - use of I (personal reaction)
Supported Value Response	- (as above) - supported part may begin with because, when, but, for, so as, etc.
Value Preference	- should, need, must (should most commonly used)
Supported Value Preference	- (as above) - supported part may begin with because, when, but, to, so, as if.

Key Words are words that tend to recur with respect to assertions in each category.

ASSERTIONS	DISTINGUISHING FACTORS
Particular	Distinguished from general assertions by simplicity of statement and lack of generalization.
General	Distinguished from a value response by use of verb phrases (e.g. could be, etc. which reduce the valuative emphasis)
Conditional	Distinguished from value response and preference by (1) absence of value terms (unless modified) (2) absence of a personalized course of action (absence of should) (3) use of could be, etc. to reduce valuative emphasis of value term.
Value Response	Distinguished from (1) factual assertions by use of value terms (2) a value preference by the absence of a personalized course of action (3) other assertions by using simple personal reactions.
Supported Value Response	As above Distinguished from value response by the added support - for further clarification or reason.
Value Preference	Distinguished from factual assertions by use of should, etc. (indicating a personal preference) (N.B. All statements using the key words are categorized here.)
Supported Value Preference	As above Distinguished from value preference by a reason or clarification which supports the preference.

Distinguishing Factors - try to make some differentiation between assertions to make coding less difficult.

ASSERTIONS	EXAMPLES
Particular	In 1969 and 1970 people were killed in accidents. Registrations are increasing. The law says that you hitchhike from the sidewalk. More tags were issued in 1970 than 1969.
General	They cause accidents and pollution. Snowmobiles can be very enjoyable. Some people do not put their intentions into practice when they avoid helping people. Population has a lot to do with the rise in injuries.
Conditional	If special areas are established the number of accidents could be reduced. People might buy them if they didn't pollute and weren't as noisy. It would be safe if people obeyed all the regulations. If the bus service was improved there might be fewer hitchhikers.
Value Response	*They are dangerous. The rules are not strict enough. It's good that more tickets are being given out. I like the idea. I disagree about having hitchhiking zones.
Supported Value Response	**Snowmobiles are safe when the driver follows the regulations. I wouldn't buy one because of the harm done to the environment. It's dangerous because it interferes with the traffic. The fines are good as people will try to be more careful. I'm in favour for they serve useful purposes in the winter.
Value Preference	There should be special areas set aside for snowmobiles. Companies need to make their machines safer. Hitchhiking should be banned completely. Girls should hitchhike in groups. If the government bans it, other transportation should be provided. (See note)

Supported Value Preference	**The number of special areas should be increased to stop overcrowding of vehicles. Snowmobiles should be built stronger so that they stand up in the winter. If girls cannot defend themselves properly they should not hitchhike. (See note) Zones should be spread out, to stop congestion.

These examples are ones students have used, and indicate the type and range of assertions within each category.

NOTE: It might appear that these assertions are similar. In this value preference the preference is not supported, but an alternative is indicated. In the supported value preference the preference is supported by a specific reason.

* Value Terms underlined.

** Supportive aspects underlined.

UNCLASSIFIED	EXAMPLES
These assertions are comments, single words or groups of words or sentences which cannot be classified in any of the categories outlined due to a variety of reasons. a. The meaning is not clear. b. The statement is incomplete or mixed, showing no clear thought or idea. c. Spelling errors and/or grammatical structure make it incomprehensible. d. The comments, words or assertions appear totally unrelated to the topic, problem or any part of it.	careless drivers storage problem were in an accident when . . . special clubs I went to Calgary once.

IDENTIFICATION	EXAMPLES
These assertions where the individual has appeared to integrate both thoughts and feelings. He has placed himself to some extent "in the other person's shoes". These assertions show some concern for the welfare of others, animals, the environment or the future condition of mankind. These assertions have already been coded in categories as either factual or valuative. You are asked to indicate those assertions that appear to show "identification".	They are scaring animals They are spoiling the atmosphere with the noise and gas pollution. They should be built much safer with protection devices because people are getting injured, some seriously. It is not fair that in the north people that are poor have to pay 3 times as much for gasoline as we do here in Edmonton. People should pick up people who are in need of a ride as they may not have any money and have to get to a special place. People are mean and selfish when they don't help others who need it.

APPENDIX E

SUMMARY OF PROCEDURE FOR PERSONAL INTERVIEWS BY JAMES CHADWICK

THE INTERVIEW PROCEDURE

A. Preparation for the Interview

1. The interviewer should not only determine but define his purpose for using the interview in obtaining the information required. This should include clarification in thinking and writing as to what actually is to be served by the interview; planning a step-by-step agenda as to what facts must be brought out, what information must be given, what attitudes should be established, and what action is to be taken.
2. The interviewer should attempt to clarify his preconceived points of view about the topic.
3. The interviewer should place himself in the interviewee's position and try to imagine what the interviewee would think of the interviewer, the approach, and the purposes of the interview.

B. The Interview

1. The interviewer should set the mood for the interview by explaining that it will be based upon a mutual understanding of its purposes. Thus, the interviewee should see that by his participating in the interview he could help to achieve some goal or bring about some change which he considered desirable.

2. The interview begins when agreement on a purpose has been reached between the interviewer and the interviewee. From this point on, the interviewer must tread a fine line with respect to his responsiveness. It was essential that the interviewer try not to reveal his own attitudes - including not showing shock or disapproval or nodding support. However, the interviewer must not become completely impassive. The interviewer should compromise by adopting a manner of friendly permissiveness. For example, he should laugh at the interviewee's jokes, exclaim when the interviewee says something evidently intended to be astonishing ("Really?"; "You don't say!"), make supportive statements ("I see your point," "That's understandable," "That's very interesting"), and in any other way allow himself the appropriate emotional expression which would be normal for the particular situation. But, the interviewer should avoid the slightest approval or disapproval of the interviewee's positions.
3. The interviewer should be a good listener, which means he should actively participate through concentrated effort to examine and comprehend the true meaning of what the interviewee is trying to communicate.
4. The interviewer should let the interviewee tell his own story. Then after the interviewee has had a chance to give the main story, uninterrupted by

questioning, the interviewer should complete the interview by questioning him about an incomplete portion of it.

5. The interviewer should ask only one question at a time, and his wording should be such that the meaning is clear. The following are some suggestions about questioning and wording:
   a. The interviewer should ask only questions that are related to the purposes of the interview.
   b. The interviewer should avoid using leading questions because they suggest answers.
   c. The interviewer should not use questions that are loaded with social desirability. People tend to give responses that are socially desirable, responses that indicate or imply approval of actions or things that are generally considered to be good. For example, the interviewer may ask a person about his feelings toward children. Everybody is supposed to love children. Unless the interviewer is very careful, he will get a stereotyped response about children and love. Also, when the interviewer asks a person if he votes, he must be careful since everyone is supposed to vote. If he asks interviewees their reactions to minority groups he again runs the risk of getting invalid responses. Most educated people, no matter what their true attitudes,

are aware that prejudice is disapproved. A good question, then, is one in which interviewees are not led to express merely socially desirable sentiments. At the same time, one should not question an interviewee so that he is faced with the necessity of giving a socially undesirable response.

d. Make questions short enough so that the interviewee will be able to remember them.

e. Specify, as close as possible, the exact time, place, and context which you desire the interviewee to assume when he answers your questions.

f. Questions should be worded so that a single "yes" or "no" answer is not possible unless there is no other way.

g. When the interview concerns a subject with which the interviewee may not be very familiar, or one in which he may not have the necessary technical vocabulary, it is sometimes desirable to preface questions with an explanatory paragraph or an illustration which will set the stage for the question the interviewer wants to ask.

h. Ask questions in terms of the interviewee's own immediate (recent) experience, rather than in terms of generalities. For example, the interviewer can ask, "Think back to the last time one of your students came in late. What did you say?" rather than "What do you usually say when a student comes in late?"

i. When the interview deals with sensitive topics, attention must be given to wording questions in such a way as to minimize ego defenses. This can be accomplished by making the interviewee's desired answer seem acceptable. The following are some of the ways in which this can be accomplished:

(1) If the sensitive area involves the expression of criticism of a person or institution, provide an opportunity for the interviewee to voice praise first, so that he will not feel he is being unfair. For example, "What do you like best about your teacher?", then "What do you like least about your teacher?"

(2) Indicate to the interviewee that other people hold the same opinion even though it's not socially acceptable.

(3) If the interviewer feels it necessary to discuss some undesirable attitude or behavior of the interviewee, he should place the burden of denial on him. For example, "When did you first sluff school?" instead of "Did you ever sluff school?"

(4) Introduce face-saving phrases and words. For example, "Do you happen to know who the principal of this school is?" instead of "Do you know. . . ?"

(5) Too often unintentional criticism is conveyed through mere disappointment over the fact that the interviewee failed to touch upon certain matters which the interviewer felt pertinent to the success of the interview. However expressed, the interviewee sees it as a personal indictment.

(6) In general, it seems preferable to have a further question directed to the affective aspects of what is being said rather than to pounce upon a factually inaccurate statement. Few devices are better calculated to stem the flow of conversation than that of countering an apparent statement of fact, which is actually the expression of a sentiment, with proof that the alleged fact is not true.

6. When continued self-exploration becomes uncomfortable, the interviewer should be aware of the fact that interviewees often attempt to reverse their roles. For example, he may be reluctant to explore his own feelings because they are painful or embarrassing or because they are so diffuse that he cannot easily put them into words.

Whatever the reasons, he hopes that the interviewer's answer will provide the "correct" formulation of his own vague feelings. When this situation arises, it is important that the interviewer avoid answering the question. At the same time, the interviewee should be encouraged to continue with his report. This can best be achieved by restating the implied meaning of the question and redirecting the revised question back to the interviewee. For example, the interviewee asked, "Did the principal think the teacher lied about me?" The interviewer responded with "You mean it wasn't clear whether the teacher lied or not?" "Right," replied the interviewee, "You remember when. . .?"

7. When interviewee contradictions arise, the interviewer can quote the interviewee, but he must be careful not to antagonize him. One good device is for the interviewer to restate the earlier remark with something like the following: "I want to be sure to get this right, and I wonder if I haven't made a mistake. Would you please clarify your last statement in light of your earlier comment?" If this is enough, fine. However, in most cases, the interviewer will have to restate the previous statement before the interviewee will respond.
8. When the interviewee digresses, the interviewer can lead the interviewee back to relevant material by questions which relate to what he has been saying about

the topic.

9. When the interviewer wants to elicit additional information from the interviewee or clarify information already given, a number of probing techniques may be used. They enable the interviewer to bring about a reaction without himself becoming part of the reaction. Thus, to elicit additional information the interviewer uses such phrases as "Would you tell me some more about that?", "I'm interested in what you're saying, Could you give me a little more information about it?", or "I see what you mean. Can you tell me a little bit more about how you feel?" These statements indicate that the interviewer is interested, understands what the interviewee is saying, and is making a bid for more information.

10. Finally, if the interviewee shows resistance, the interviewer should merely ask the interviewee to talk about it. In response, the interviewee will usually mention a problem or problem area which in itself resolves the interviewer's immediate problem -- resistance. However, often there is a deeper reason why the interviewee fails to understand the question or gives an answer which does not actually answer the question, namely, the question arouses anxiety in him. The interviewer must learn to detect signs of anxiety, and must judge when it is wisest to stop the line of questioning even if he has not obtained the information

the objectives called for. A further danger is the fact that the interviewer himself may feel anxious about a problem and may therefore be oversensitive to signs of disturbances in the interviewee.

11. The interviewer should know when to end the interview. For example, if all of the purposes have been satisfactorily met, then stop. However, most of the time, problems will be encountered that weren't anticipated. The suggested procedure here is to probe until the interviewer feels that to probe further would jeopardize the successful completion of the interview. At this point, the interviewer should encourage a break in the interview. There should be an understanding that to continue without further information or thought would not lead to the purposes they had agreed on at the beginning of the interview. And if possible, get some purposes for the interim period so that the interviewer and interviewee would be prepared to start where they left off.

APPENDIX F

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF ADJECTIVES INDICATED BY STUDENTS WITH REFERENCE TO FOUR VALUE ISSUES

FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF ADJECTIVES INDICATED BY STUDENTS WITH REFERENCE

TO FOUR VALUE ISSUES (GRADE V)

N = 26

SNOWMOBILES	HUNTING BIG GAME ANIMALS	HITCHHIKING	CAPITAL PUNISHMENT
Dangerous (15) Enjoyable (14) Fast (7) Strong (2) Noisy (2) Powerful (2) Good (2) Cold (1) Bad (1) Smooth (1) Light (1) Sporting (1) Destructive (1)	Cruel (10) Enjoyable (4) Useful (2) Red (2) Noisy (2) Bad (2) Quiet (1) Wasteful (1) Cold (1) Wet (1) Warlike (1)	Dangerous (6) Useful (4) Enjoyable (2) Strong (2) Boring (2) Good (2) Cold (1) Sad (1) Lazy (1) Weak (1)	Cruel (8) Horrible (3) Fair (2) Unfair (3) Good (2) Useless (1) Painful (1) Quiet (1)
50	42	22	21

APPENDIX G

PRE-POST TEST CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS AMONG VARIABLES FOR FOUR VALUE TOPICS FOR

TREATMENT GROUP I

TREATMENT GROUP II

TREATMENT GROUP III

PRE-POST TEST CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS AMONG VARIABLES FOR FOUR VALUE TOPICS FOR TREATMENT GROUP I (N = 30)

	Value Topic			
Variable	I	II	III	IV
1. Good-Bad	.267	.583	.596	.070
2. Quiet-Noisy	.348	.428	.498	.257
3. Safe-Dangerous	.409	.470	.734	.554
4. Useful-Useless	.483	.407	.722	.221
5. Kind-Cruel	.595	.590	.394	.455
6. Fair-Unfair	.437	.072	.275	.540
7. Strong-Weak	.442	.555	.912	.287
8. Enjoyable-Boring	.416	.485	.646	.080

PRE-POST TEST CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS AMONG VARIABLES FOR FOUR VALUE TOPICS FOR TREATMENT GROUP II (N = 30)

	Value Topic			
Variable	I	II	III	IV
1. Good-Bad	.579	.502	.396	.334
2. Quiet-Noisy	.338	.443	.483	.729
3. Safe-Dangerous	.358	.072	.463	.534
4. Useful-Useless	.539	.526	.534	.264
5. Kind-Cruel	.394	.115	.560	.366
6. Fair-Unfair	-.208	.131	.585	.400
7. Strong-Weak	.478	.342	.263	.031
8. Enjoyable-Boring	.340	.459	.279	.687

PRE-POST TEST CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS AMONG VARIABLES FOR FOUR VALUE TOPICS FOR TREATMENT GROUP III (N = 30)

	Value Topic			
Variables	I	II	III	IV
1. Good-Bad	.499	.315	.455	.206
2. Quiet-Noisy	.413	.727	.781	.478
3. Safe-Dangerous	.183	.310	.693	.367
4. Useful-Useless	.512	-.025	.596	.418
5. Kind-Cruel	.290	.154	-.011	.588
6. Fair-Unfair	.591	.120	.603	.212
7. Strong-Weak	.155	.355	.508	.564
8. Enjoyable-Boring	.449	.236	.663	.635

APPENDIX H

STUDENT EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

For these last four (4) weeks you have been discussing special topics in your social studies class.

These topics have been: 1. Snowmobiles 2. Hitchhiking 3. Hunting Big Game Animals 4. Death Penalty.

We would like to find out how you feel about taking these topics in your social studies class.

Please answer the following questions as honestly as you can. In this way you will be able to provide some useful information.

---

1. What did you think about discussing these topics in your social studies class? (Check one)

   a. __________ I liked it very much.

   b. __________ I did not like it.

   c. __________ I am not sure.

2. Do you think that you learned many new ideas from discussing these topics in class? (Check one)

   a. __________ Yes

   b. __________ No

   c. __________ Not sure

   Explain your answer if possible.

3. How did you like discussing these topics in class? Use this scale: 1. = I liked this topic very much.

   2. = I did not like this topic.

3. = I am not sure.

Place 1, 2 or 3 beside each of the topics below.

__________ Snowmobiles

__________ Hitchhiking

__________ Hunting Big Game Animals

__________ Death Penalty

Explain why you liked some topics more than others.

4. In which topics did your teacher ask you to express your feelings? (Check these)

__________ Snowmobiles

__________ Hitchhiking

__________ Hunting Big Game Animals

__________ Death Penalty

Did expressing your feelings help you to understand these topics? (Check one)

__________ Yes

__________ No

__________ Not sure

See if you can explain your answer.

5. In what topics did your ideas change as you discussed it during the week? (Check only those topics where you felt your ideas changed).

__________ Snowmobiles

__________ Hitchhiking

__________ Hunting Big Game Animals

__________ Death Penalty

What caused your ideas to change?

6. In the list below show what you think about this kind of social studies work. You can do this by using the following scale.

1. = liked a lot
2. = liked a little
3. = did not like or dislike
4. = disliked a little
5. = disliked a lot

Place 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5 in the spaces below, beside each item in the list.

_________ learning from the facts and information

_________ learning from the viewpoints on the papers

_________ learning from the viewpoints of other students in the class

_________ expressing my own thoughts to other students in the class

_________ expressing my feelings

_________ the teacher' questioning us to help us express our thoughts

_________ the teacher questioning us to help us express our feelings

_________ expressing my thoughts on the Thought Cards

_________ making my final decisions on the Decision Card

_________ listening to all the ideas being discussed

See if you can explain some of the reasons for your answers above.

APPENDIX I

TEACHER EVALUATION OF PROJECT

TEACHER EVALUATION OF PROJECT

Please make your personal comments on the program feely, using the following headings as a guideline.

1. SUITABILITY OF TOPICS

2. AMOUNT AND CONTENT OF WRITTEN INFORMATION USED BY THE STUDENTS.
   (a. information and facts, b. viewpoints)

3. OUTLINE OF INSTRUCTIONS TO BE FOLLOWED.

4. PREPARATION TIME FOR THE CLASSES.

5. SUITABILITY OF THE THREE PROCESSES

   (a) Cognitive

   (b) Cognitive-Affective

   (c) Open

6. ITEMS OF THE PROCESSES THAT YOU CONSIDERED MOST VITAL.

7. THE IMPORTANCE OF THE AFFECTIVE SIDE OF THE STRATEGY.

8. COMPARISON OF THESE STRATEGIES WITH OTHER DISCUSSION AND/OR INQUIRY TECHNIQUES YOU HAVE USED.

9. THE CARRY-OVER EFFECT OF THIS KIND OF WORK TO OTHER SCHOOL SUBJECTS.

10. THE CUMULATIVE EFFECT OF USING THESE STRATEGIES.

11. EVALUATION PROCEDURES.

    (a) Thought Cards

    (b) Decision Cards

    (c) Semantic Differential Test

12. VALUE OF THE DISCUSSIONS.

13. INTEREST AND MOTIVATION OF STUDENTS.

14. STRENGTHS OF THE PROGRAM.

15. WEAKNESSES OF THE PROGRAM.

16. YOUR GENERAL AND/OR OTHER COMMENTS.

APPENDIX J

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO STRATEGY

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO THE COGNITIVE-AFFECTIVE STRATEGY

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
ISSUE I	11	73	50	188	30	220	64	1	637	150
Teacher C	1.7%	11.5%	7.9%	29.5%	4.7%	34.5%	10.0%	.2%		23.5%
ISSUE II	12	26	32	16	41	48	104	3	282	125
Teacher B	4.3%	9.2%	11.3%	5.7%	14.5%	17.0%	36.9%	1.1%		44.3%
ISSUE III	11	22	17	41	26	129	75	10	331	120
Teacher A	3.3%	6.7%	5.2%	12.4%	7.8%	39.0%	22.6%	3.0%		36.3%

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING

TO THE COGNITIVE STRATEGY

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
ISSUE I	23	62	32	32	20	232	46	2	449	51
Teacher B	5.1%	13.8%	7.1%	7.1%	4.7%	51.7%	10.3%	.2%		11.4%
ISSUE II	27	21	17	39	14	114	27	8	267	37
Teacher A	10.1%	7.9%	6.4%	14.6%	5.2%	42.7%	10.1%	3.0%		13.9%
ISSUE III	18	21	10	89	19	372	52	3	584	68
Teacher C	3.1%	3.6%	1.7%	15.2%	3.3%	63.7%	8.9%	.5%		11.6%
TOTALS	68	104	59	160	53	718	125	13	1300	156
	5.2%	8.0%	4.5%	12.3%	4.1%	55.2%	9.6%	1.0%		12.0%

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO THE OPEN STRATEGY

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
ISSUE I	16	73	9	56	25	110	19	16	324	58
Teacher A	4.9%	22.5%	2.8%	17.3%	7.7%	34.0%	5.9%	4.9%		17.9%
ISSUE II	37	55	31	160	65	147	107	-	602	118
Teacher C	6.1%	9.1%	5.2%	26.6%	10.8%	24.4%	17.8%	-		19.6%
ISSUE III	7	11	17	13	7	181	82	4	322	94
Teacher B	2.2%	3.4%	5.3%	4.1%	2.2%	56.2%	25.3%	1.3%		29.2%
TOTALS	60	139	57	229	97	438	208	20	1248	270
	4.8%	11.1%	4.6%	18.3%	7.8%	35.1%	16.7%	1.6%		21.6%

APPENDIX K

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES FOR WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO VALUE ISSUE

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO ISSUE I

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
TEACHER A	16	73	9	56	25	110	19	16	324	58
Open	4.9%	22.5%	2.8%	17.3%	7.7%	34.0%	5.9%	4.9%		17.9%
TEACHER B	23	62	32	32	20	232	46	2	449	51
Cognitive	5.1%	13.8%	7.1%	7.1%	4.7%	51.7%	10.3%	.2%		11.4%
TEACHER C	11	73	50	188	30	220	64	1	637	150
Affective-Cognitive	1.7%	11.5%	7.9%	29.5%	4.7%	34.5%	10.0%	.2%		23.5%
TOTALS	50	208	91	276	75	562	129	19	1410	259
	3.5%	14.8%	6.5%	19.6%	5.3%	39.9%	9.1%	1.3%		18.4%

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO ISSUE II

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
TEACHER A	27	21	17	39	14	114	27	8	267	37
Cognitive	10.1%	7.9%	6.4%	14.6%	5.2%	42.7%	10.1%	3.0%		13.9%
TEACHER B Cognitive-Affective	12	26	32	16	41	48	104	3	282	125
	4.3%	9.2%	11.3%	5.7%	14.5%	17.0%	36.9%	1.1%		44.3%
TEACHER C	37	55	31	160	65	147	107	-	602	118
Open	6.1%	9.1%	5.2%	26.6%	10.8%	24.4%	17.8%	-		19.6%
TOTAL	76	102	80	215	120	309	238	11	1151	280
	6.6%	8.9%	6.9%	18.7%	10.4%	26.8%	20.7%	1.0%		24.3%

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO ISSUE III

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
TEACHER A	11	22	17	41	26	129	75	10	331	120
Cognitive-Affective	3.3%	6.7%	5.2%	12.4%	7.8%	39.0%	22.6%	3.0%		36.3%
TEACHER B	7	11	17	13	7	181	82	4	322	94
Open	2.2%	3.4%	5.3%	4.1%	2.2%	56.2%	25.3%	1.3%		29.2%
TEACHER C	18	21	10	89	19	372	52	3	584	68
Cognitive	3.1%	3.6%	1.7%	15.2%	3.3%	63.7%	8.9%	.5%		11.6%
TOTALS	36	54	44	143	52	682	209	17	1237	282
	2.9%	4.4%	3.6%	11.5%	4.2%	55.1%	16.9%	1.4%		22.8%

APPENDIX L

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES FOR WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO TEACHER

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO TEACHER A

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
ISSUE I	16	73	9	56	25	110	19	16	324	58
Open	4.9%	22.5%	2.8%	17.3%	7.7%	34.0%	5.9%	4.9%		17.9%
ISSUE II	27	21	17	39	14	114	27	8	267	37
Cognitive	10.1%	7.9%	6.4%	14.6%	5.2%	42.7%	10.1%	3.0%		13.9%
ISSUE III Cognitive-	11	22	17	41	26	129	75	10	331	120
Affective	3.3%	6.7%	5.2%	12.4%	7.8%	39.0%	22.6%	3.0%		36.3%
TOTALS	54	116	43	136	65	353	121	34	922	215
	5.8%	12.6%	4.7%	14.8%	7.0%	38.3%	13.1%	3.7%		23.3%

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO TEACHER B

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
ISSUE I	23	62	32	32	20	232	46	2	449	51
Cognitive	5.1%	13.8%	7.1%	7.1%	4.7%	51.7%	10.3%	.2%		11.4%
ISSUE II	12	26	32	16	41	48	104	3	282	125
Cognitive-Affective	4.3%	9.2%	11.3%	5.7%	14.5%	17.0%	36.9%	1.1%		44.3%
ISSUE III	7	11	17	13	7	181	82	4	322	94
Open	2.2%	3.4%	5.3%	4.1%	2.2%	56.2%	25.3%	1.3%		29.2%
TOTALS	42	99	81	61	68	461	232	9	1053	270
	4.0%	9.4%	7.7%	5.8%	6.5%	43.8%	22.0%	.8%		25.6%

TOTALS AND PERCENTAGES OF WRITTEN ASSERTIONS ACCORDING TO TEACHER C

	FACTUAL			VALUATIVE						
	Particular	General	Conditional	Response	Supported Response	Preference	Supported Preference	Unclassified	Totals	Identification
ISSUE I	11	73	50	188	30	220	64	1	637	150
Cognitive-Affective	1.7%	11.5%	7.9%	29.5%	4.7%	34.5%	10.0%	.2%		23.5%
ISSUE II	37	55	31	160	65	147	107	-	602	118
Open	6.1%	9.1%	5.2%	26.6%	10.8%	24.4%	17.8%	-		19.6%
ISSUE III	18	21	10	89	19	372	52	3	584	68
Cognitive	3.1%	3.6%	1.7%	15.2%	3.3%	63.7%	8.9%	.5%		11.6%
TOTALS	66	149	91	437	114	739	223	4	1823	336
	3.6%	8.2%	5.0%	24.0%	6.3%	40.5%	12.2%	.2%		18.4%

APPENDIX M

STUDENTS' VERBAL RESPONSES AS RECORDED IN INTERVIEWS

Issue I

Q. How did you feel about snowmobiles before you started talking about them in class?

Student 1: A. I knew they were dangerous because there are accidents -- there's a lot of problems so I'm glad we're talking about them.

Student 2: A. Well, at first I thought that they were OK -- you know. But then you look at all the information that we had on it. They kill the environment and they're dangerous and now I'm not too sure about them.

Student 3: A. I was pretty much against them at the beginning -- now I'm against and for them.

Student 4: A. At first I didn't really like them -- now I like them a lot more.

Q's: How do you feel now (and/or)

What are your reasons for changing?

Student 1: A. Well, I sort of know more now.

Student 2: A. Well, I've learned that the numbers are increasing, and about the deaths and the laws. Now I don't really think that they're too good. They're good for fun but when people start being too dangerous then they're not too good.

Student 3: A. Some people's viewpoints were good, and some people in class had ideas that were better and I agreed with them. I didn't know too much about them before.

I knew they were dangerous but not much more.

Student 4: A. I feel somewhat the same. I've changed just a little bit. I didn't think they were too dangerous; but now after taking those sheets, and seeing about all the snowmobiles, and talking about them I think they're real dangerous.

Q. What are some of the problems you see?

Student 1: A. Well, that they're dangerous and especially if you cross the road with them. They cause noise and gas pollution. And they use up nature -- go through shrubs, and over hills and ruin other peoples' property.

Student 2: A. Well, it's not exactly the snowmobile itself. . . It's really the drivers who drive them that are responsible for all the damage to wildlife and to people themselves.

Student 3: A. Well, the fines could be higher, just a bit, then people would be more careful not to break the laws and they should have different laws about where they can go and not all over -- like restricted areas.

Student 4: A. They cause pollution in the air and they're dangerous.

Q's: What do you think about this ki;d of work in the social studies?

What part did you enjoy the most?

Student 1: A. I like it.

Well, discussing it, and saying your feelings about it, and just talking about it with the teacher helping, and saying things that help us understand about snowmobiles and pollution.

Student 2: A. It's good.

Yes, you learn -- you don't have to work, but you listen and read and discuss.

Issue II

Q's: How did you feel about hitchhiking before you started talking about it in class?

How do you feel now?

What are your reasons for changing?

Student 1: A. . . . . Well, I didn't know too much about it at first. . . but when we looked at the facts and information and some people were killed I thought something should be done.

A. Well, if the government decides to ban hitchhiking it's deciding something that the people should decide, because if they want to go out and risk their lives no one can really stop them.

Student 2: A. I thought it wasn't a good idea at first. Then after I looked at some viewpoints, like the man who said he had hitched from, I think Toronto to Edmonton. . . he said it was a good experience.

A. I feel I want to do something to protect the hitchhikers and the drivers so that it will be easier.

Student 3: A. I thought it was good before.

A. Well, now I feel it's quite dangerous.

A. . . . the accidents on the sheets we took, and that, and the peoples' viewpoints.

Student 4: A. I was kind of neutral about it.

A. Now I think it's pretty good.

A. Well, I'm not sure. I didn't know much about hitchhiking before, and now I know quite a bit about it from the information I've studied.

Q's: What do you think about this kind of work for social studies?
What parts did you enjoy the most?
Why do you say that?

Student 1: A. You get to know other peoples' differences, and you get to share your decisions with everyone else.

Student 2: A. It's interesting and good. You learn more than just studying all from books. You learn from the points of view that we looked at.

Student 3: A. I liked it when we discussed and we got to know how the other people feel and what they're like.

Student 4: A. It's fun.

A. You get to discuss things and you don't have to write too much down on paper.

A. You get ideas from other people and this helps you make your final decision.

Student 5: A. It's fun. You get all the thoughts about the topics from the information and other people.

Student 6: A. I like solving the problems.

A. . . . sort of helping people find the best answers to the problems.

Student 7: A. Oh, it's better . . . you don't write down very much and you learn. It's an easy kind of learning, a fun learning, and I like it.

Student 8: A. I like it.

A. Well, when we share our reasons and that.

Student 9: A. I like it.

A. Um. . . I don't know, I guess, the discussing out of it all.

Student 10: A. I like the discussing part.

A. Information and other peoples' thoughts.

Student 11: A. Well, I like it. It's a lot better than just going looking through books, until you just find some information and you make notes and an outline and everything. Each person doesn't have a different topic. You have a whole topic, and you discuss it, and you find out what other people think about it, and that may help you change your mind about it.

Issue III

Q's: How did you feel about "Hunting Big Game Animals" before you started talking about it in class?

How do you feel now?

Can you think of anything that's helped you change your mind?

Student 1: A. I didn't know that hunters were killing off so many animals.

A. I feel now that hunting isn't very good, because if it continues the animals would become extinct.

Student 2: A. Well, I've always wanted to hunt, but in a way I don't, because I don't see what's the use in having hunting when there's a lot of other food we could have. But I thought it was a fun sport.

A. Well, . . . the animals can't sort of do anything, and today in class a girl said that the animals were made for man's use, and I don't really believe that either, because as far as we know we may have been made for the animal's use. We've just overpowered them.

A. I've learned that the animals are going down rapidly and this has been increased by hunters coming in from the U.S. Animals have to have time to reproduce and this would only have an effect if there was a ban for four or five years.

Student 3: A. Well, I thought it was getting serious because the animals are going down in population. Moose were plentiful, but not anymore.

A. I think now that with the foreign hunters here many animals may be headed for extinction.

A. Well, after the first day we looked on those sheets and read through everything it kind of made me think a lot more about it, because in the beginning I thought there were lots of these animals, but now, after we read the sheets and what the people have said it seems that many are headed for extinction.

Student 4: A. Well, at the beginning I was not really against it and not really for it. I was just kind of in the middle.

A. Well now, I'm quite against it.

A. I found out that too many people are shooting the animals and in the U.S.A. the same thing has already happened and they don't have any animals to shoot there.

Student 5: A. Well, I didn't know too much about it, but it wasn't really fair, and there seemed to me that they were shooting off too many at a time.

A. I feel much the same, but it's just a little more complicated because I know a little more about it.

Q's: What do you think about this kind of work for social studies?
What parts did you enjoy the most?
Why do you say that?

Student 1: A. I think it's fun. Most of the time we're just working in a book and as an individual.

A. We get to talk in class and share each other's viewpoints.

Student 2: A. Well, it's quite fun, and everybody's learning a new thing every day.

A. The part I like the most is when you get a change to talk and like share your feelings with others.

A. Well, at first I thought hunting was a good idea because with a few hunters the animals might become overpopulated, but now I feel that its not very good to hunt animals because animals have feelings just like us.

Student 3: A. Well, I like it.

A. Well, it's a good way to learn about Canada and about the different laws we've made about things like snowmobiling and hitchhiking and things like that.

A. I like sharing our thoughts a lot because it lets the whole class know what other people are like, and what they think.

Student 4: A. It's good.

A. Well, the viewpoints, when you put down your own ideas and sharing them with other people.

Student 5: A. I really like it, cause it's much different from just making a big report.

A. The discussion, reading all the information and letters from other people about it.

Student 6: A. Well, it's fun exchanging your ideas.

Student 7: A. Well, I think that it's more fun, than most kinds, because you can share your ideas with other people and find out what they think.

A. Findings out what other people think and finding out the differences between you and the people around you.

Student 8: A. Yes. . . it's OK.

A. Well, it makes you aware of things and other topics that you don't usually study in school.

A. Well, I kind of like seeing what other people think about it and then put these together on the sheet, and you learn about it, and what other people think about it.

Issue IV

Q's: How did you feel about "Capital Punishment" before you started talking about it in class?

How do you feel now?

Is there anything that has helped change your mind?

Student 1: A. I hadn't really thought about it much before this.

A. I've been considering it by going through all the papers.

A. The discussion has helped.

Student 2: A. It's hard because I didn't know much about it before.

A. I don't really feel strong one way or the other about it.

Student 3: A. Well, I didn't really know or think anything about it before and now I know a lot more than I did.

A. Figures from the sheets and that in some countries it's different from others.

Student 4: A. Well, first I thought it was boring because I didn't really understand it, and what it was about, and then it got a little more interesting when we read and discussed the sheets and the viewpoints, like the one yesterday about the convict who had been sentenced to the electric chair, but because he came from a rich family got life in prison and then got out.

Q's: What do you think about this kind of work for social studies?
What parts did you enjoy the most?
Why do you say that?

Student 1: A. I really like it a lot.

A. Well, the people. . .like before you didn't get to express your opinions too much, and here you can get to talk about your opinions with each other.

Student 2: A. It's fun, because you can put down what you think of a subject, and so you don't always have to say. . oh. .answer all those questions about the Cordillera Region on the sheets. Now we can say what we really feel about the topic and get it out.

Student 3: A. Well, I think it's fun.

A. I like it when we get to express our views, that we normally wouldn't be able to.

Student 4: A. The part that I like the best is when you write down your own viewpoints, because not every one has the same viewpoints.

Student 5: A. I like this kind of work.

A. You learn to find out what people feel about it, other people having heard about it and what they feel about it.

Student 6: A. Oh, it's fun.

A. Well, you sort of get to express your feelings about it and people react.

Student 7: A. It's fun.

A. Well, you can express your ideas with the rest of the class and you learn more from the information.

Student 8: A. Well, I like it.

A. Well, you hear a bunch of other peoples' suggestions and it's fun. You get to express your own and learn new information.

A. When someone says something and disagrees with you, you have to say something back that's different. You sort of have a challenge with the other person.

APPENDIX N

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF PRE, POST AND POST-POST TEST RESULTS ON SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL SCORES ON FOUR CLASSES FOR FOUR VALUE TOPICS

VALUE TOPIC I **TREATMENT CLASS I**

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	3.10	1.55	3.20	1.45	2.93	1.26
2. Quiet-Noisy	1.63	.85	1.60	.86	1.53	.82
3. Safe-Dangerous	1.79	1.00	1.93	1.11	1.67	.84
4. Useful-Useless	3.83	1.12	4.00	1.05	4.07	.69
5. Kind-Cruel	2.70	.65	2.73	.74	2.67	.66
6. Fair-Unfair	2.93	.98	2.97	.93	2.80	.66
7. Strong-Weak	4.00	.79	3.87	.86	3.57	.86
8. Enjoyable-Boring	4.37	1.03	4.13	1.36	4.13	1.17

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre, Post and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Snowmobiles". (N = 30)

VALUE TOPIC I TREATMENT CLASS II

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	3.67	1.27	3.13	1.20	2.70	1.24
2. Quiet-Noisy	1.80	1.03	1.43	.73	1.70	.75
3. Safe-Dangerous	2.03	1.07	1.97	.96	1.97	.96
4. Useful-Useless	4.13	1.11	4.17	.91	3.83	.83
5. Kind-Cruel	3.00	.95	2.80	.71	2.70	.99
6. Fair-Unfair	3.73	1.14	2.83	.75	2.97	.81
7. Strong-Weak	4.60	.72	4.03	.81	3.93	.94
8. Enjoyable-Boring	4.23	1.17	3.80	1.13	4.00	.87

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre, Post and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Snowmobiles". (N = 30)

VALUE TOPIC I TREATMENT CLASS III

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	3.41	1.45	2.48	1.06	2.59	1.21
2. Quiet-Noisy	1.66	1.04	1.48	.78	1.45	.74
3. Safe-Dangerous	2.07	1.00	1.83	1.12	1.66	1.01
4. Useful-Useless	3.90	1.32	3.79	1.35	3.38	1.37
5. Kind-Cruel	3.10	1.08	2.72	1.19	2.52	1.15
6. Fair-Unfair	3.21	1.15	3.10	1.29	2.93	1.19
7. Strong-Weak	4.28	.96	4.21	.77	3.86	1.06
8. Enjoyable-Boring	4.24	1.38	4.03	1.32	4.03	1.18

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre, Post and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Snowmobiles". (N = 29)

VALUE TOPIC I CONTROL CLASS

	Pre-Test		Post-Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	3.13	1.20	3.07	1.01
2. Quiet-Noisy	1.80	.92	1.77	.94
3. Safe-Dangerous	2.03	.96	2.33	1.09
4. Useful-Useless	3.70	1.29	3.67	1.35
5. Kind-Cruel	2.80	.92	2.83	1.02
6. Fair-Unfair	3.20	1.06	3.23	1.14
7. Strong-Weak	4.37	.85	3.97	1.07
8. Enjoyable-Boring	4.63	.61	4.37	.96

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre and Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Snowmobiles". (N = 30)

VALUE TOPIC II **TREATMENT CLASS I**

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	2.50	1.35	3.53	1.31	3.10	1.18
2. Quiet-Noisy	3.83	1.05	3.60	.81	3.60	1.00
3. Safe-Dangerous	2.03	1.19	2.20	1.06	1.97	.89
4. Useful-Useless	3.83	.99	4.60	.50	4.57	.57
5. Kind-Cruel	3.17	.79	3.23	.77	3.13	.43
6. Fair-Unfair	3.23	.82	3.37	.81	3.20	.76
7. Strong-Weak	3.03	.49	3.17	.59	3.20	.55
8. Enjoyable-Boring	2.47	1.11	3.40	1.33	3.03	1.16

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre, Post, and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Hitchhiking". (N = 30)

VALUE TOPIC II TREATMENT CLASS II

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	1.93	1.05	2.70	1.29	2.43	1.25
2. Quiet-Noisy	3.73	1.05	3.53	1.17	3.47	.78
3. Safe-Dangerous	1.63	.93	1.80	.89	1.80	.76
4. Useful-Useless	3.07	1.39	3.60	1.13	3.77	.93
5. Kind-Cruel	2.63	1.00	3.20	.92	2.93	.87
6. Fair-Unfair	2.60	1.13	3.27	.94	2.97	.81
7. Strong-Weak	3.03	.76	3.37	.72	3.17	.70
8. Enjoyable-Boring	2.30	1.09	3.07	1.23	2.87	.94

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre, Post and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Hitchhiking". (N = 30)

VALUE TOPIC II **TREATMENT CLASS III**

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	1.62	.98	2.83	1.47	2.62	1.40
2. Quiet-Noisy	3.52	1.09	3.83	1.07	3.55	1.06
3. Safe-Dangerous	1.41	.68	2.10	.94	1.76	.99
4. Useful-Useless	2.66	1.63	3.97	1.15	3.38	1.40
5. Kind-Cruel	1.86	.92	2.97	.94	2.69	.98
6. Fair-Unfair	2.24	1.21	3.17	1.14	2.72	1.16
7. Strong-Weak	3.41	.95	3.45	.78	3.28	1.00
8. Enjoyable-Boring	2.17	1.14	2.96	1.05	2.90	1.11

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre, Post and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Hitchhiking". (N = 29)

VALUE TOPIC II NON-TREATMENT CLASS

	Pre-Test		Post-Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	1.90	1.24	1.97	1.27
2. Quiet-Noisy	4.43	.90	4.07	1.04
3. Safe-Dangerous	1.80	1.10	1.80	1.06
4. Useful-Useless	3.07	1.62	3.00	1.53
5. Kind-Cruel	2.73	1.17	2.80	1.10
6. Fair-Unfair	2.80	1.24	2.77	1.10
7. Strong-Weak	3.07	1.31	3.10	1.32
8. Enjoyable-Boring	2.03	1.10	2.17	1.21

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre and Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scones for the Value Topic, "Hitchhiking". (N = 30)

VALUE TOPIC III TREATMENT CLASS I

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	2.37	1.30	2.37	1.25	2.43	1.01
2. Quiet-Noisy	2.43	1.04	2.17	1.02	2.17	.95
3. Safe-Dangerous	2.07	1.11	1.90	1.03	2.03	.85
4. Useful-Useless	3.27	1.14	3.50	1.25	3.27	1.14
5. Kind-Cruel	1.83	.95	1.53	.86	1.70	.84
6. Fair-Unfair	1.90	.96	1.67	.88	2.07	1.05
7. Strong-Weak	3.07	.37	3.10	.48	2.90	.31
8. Enjoyable-Boring	3.30	1.06	3.33	1.12	3.17	1.05

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre, Post and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Hunting". (N = 30)

VALUE TOPIC III TREATMENT CLASS II

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	2.20	1.10	2.10	1.03	2.30	.99
2. Quiet-Noisy	2.13	1.07	2.03	.89	2.20	1.10
3. Safe-Dangerous	1.80	1.10	1.93	.83	2.17	.91
4. Useful-Useless	3.30	1.24	3.33	1.06	3.50	.94
5. Kind-Cruel	1.70	.99	1.63	.76	1.87	.97
6. Fair-Unfair	2.00	1.20	2.10	.99	2.17	.95
7. Strong-Weak	3.67	1.06	3.33	.99	3.43	1.07
8. Enjoyable-Boring	3.03	1.29	3.13	.94	3.30	1.18

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre, Post, and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Hunting". (N = 30)

VALUE TOPIC III **TREATMENT CLASS III**

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	2.66	1.23	2.72	1.31	2.21	1.32
2. Quiet-Noisy	1.79	1.05	1.69	.89	1.79	.90
3. Safe-Dangerous	1.66	.77	1.72	.92	1.59	.91
4. Useful-Useless	3.34	1.42	3.31	1.34	3.21	1.24
5. Kind-Cruel	1.48	.74	1.52	1.02	1.45	.69
6. Fair-Unfair	2.07	1.19	2.21	1.08	2.10	1.35
7. Strong-Weak	3.66	1.04	3.83	.93	3.14	1.22
8. Enjoyable-Boring	3.17	1.42	3.31	1.34	3.38	1.05

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre-, Post, and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic "Hunting". (N = 29)

VALUE TOPIC III NON-TREATMENT CLASS

	Pre-Test		Post-Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	1.83	1.18	1.73	1.05
2. Quiet-Noisy	1.63	.93	1.80	.92
3. Safe-Dangerous	2.03	1.16	1.87	1.11
4. Useful-Useless	2.60	1.54	2.53	1.38
5. Kind-Cruel	1.33	.76	1.43	.82
6. Fair-Unfair	1.90	1.05	1.53	1.01
7. Strong-Weak	3.87	1.31	3.57	1.28
8. Enjoyable-Boring	2.83	1.21	2.77	1.14

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre and Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Hunting". (N = 30)

VALUE TOPIC IV **TREATMENT CLASS I**

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	4.10	1.27	3.13	1.36	3.10	1.18
2. Quiet-Noisy	3.17	.77	2.77	.90	2.97	.76
3. Safe-Dangerous	2.17	1.12	2.57	1.19	2.37	1.10
4. Useful-Useless	3.67	1.12	3.13	1.38	3.27	1.23
5. Kind-Cruel	2.13	1.11	2.17	1.15	2.37	.96
6. Fair-Unfair	3.83	1.56	3.27	1.48	3.10	1.34
7. Strong-Weak	3.17	.53	3.10	.55	3.13	.51
8. Enjoyable-Boring	3.13	.90	2.93	.58	2.97	.76

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre, Post, and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Capital Punishment".
(N = 30)

VALUE TOPIC IV TREATMENT CLASS II

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	2.60	1.73	2.80	1.24	2.77	1.22
2. Quiet-Noisy	2.77	1.01	2.77	.97	3.10	1.09
3. Safe-Dangerous	1.97	1.29	2.33	1.12	2.43	.97
4. Useful-Useless	2.47	1.25	2.77	1.14	2.73	1.11
5. Kind-Cruel	1.77	1.07	1.90	.96	2.17	.95
6. Fair-Unfair	2.60	1.61	2.73	1.39	2.70	1.26
7. Strong-Weak	3.47	1.11	3.50	.97	3.17	.79
8. Enjoyable-Boring	2.40	1.04	2.57	.88	2.57	.82

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre, Post and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Capital Punishment".
(N = 30)

VALUE TOPIC IV TREATMENT CLASS III

	Pre-Test		Post-Test		Post-Post Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	2.59	1.62	2.34	1.67	2.52	1.62
2. Quiet-Noisy	2.97	1.09	2.86	1.19	2.83	1.04
3. Safe-Dangerous	2.03	1.36	2.03	1.30	2.03	1.02
4. Useful-Useless	2.62	1.57	2.76	1.60	2.62	1.54
5. Kind-Cruel	1.90	1.08	1.59	1.02	2.00	1.10
6. Fair-Unfair	2.48	1.53	2.59	1.68	2.76	1.50
7. Strong-Weak	3.69	1.28	3.62	1.27	3.17	1.26
8. Enjoyable-Boring	2.52	.95	2.52	.99	2.38	1.08

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre, Post and Post-Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Capital Punishment".
(N = 29)

VALUE TOPIC IV NON-TREATMENT CLASS

	Pre-Test		Post-Test	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
1. Good-Bad	2.97	1.63	3.27	1.53
2. Quiet-Noisy	2.73	1.26	2.80	1.03
3. Safe-Dangerous	2.43	1.61	2.53	1.68
4. Useful-Useless	3.23	1.74	3.23	1.76
5. Kind-Cruel	2.33	1.47	2.20	1.35
6. Fair-Unfair	3.43	1.76	3.60	1.67
7. Strong-Weak	3.60	1.28	3.50	1.25
8. Enjoyable-Boring	2.80	1.21	3.00	1.17

Means and Standard Deviations of Pre and Post Test Results on Semantic Differential Scores for the Value Topic, "Capital Punishment". (N = 30)